TEACHING EVERY CHILD TO READ

Teaching

every child

to read

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TEACHING EVERY CHILD TO READ: Second Edition

Part Four
A Teacher Plans for Development
of Fundamental Reading Skills

Part Five
A Teacher Plans to Further Reading
As a Thinking Process

Part Six
A Teacher Plans an Effective
Reading Program

Part Seven
A Teacher Improves Instruction

Part Eight
A Teacher Evaluates a Reading Program

15671

EDITOR'S FOREWORD

IN THIS BOOK the author ably addresses herself to the question of what teachers should do in order to be of greatest help to youngsters in learning to read. This is the thought-line that runs persistently from beginning to end. The best of research and of teaching experience is compiled and presented for the consideration of readers who are concerned with improving teaching. The practical down-to-earthness of the book is impressive and appealing.

On the other hand, Dr. Hester accomplishes something that is a bit unusual for an author who stays as close to the practical as she does. She evinces a theoretical orientation that is both modern and consistent. Although there is little discussion of theory as such, theory is functioning and it is good. Children are taken where they are and for what they are, and are led in the direction of educational maturity. Reading is seen as much more than acquisition of a set of skills, treated as if they were essentially independent of one another. Reading is regarded as an aspect of meaningful communication between persons and that position is continually maintained. Whenever a given skill is considered it is taken in context, always with a view to the part it plays in the whole process.

This is a fine book. We take pleasure and pride in presenting it to the teaching profession.

Ernest E. Bayles

PREFACE

THE SECOND EDITION of *Teaching Every Child to Read* has been written to help teachers and administrators understand and be able to interpret through their teaching the many changes which have occurred in reading instruction during the last decade. This edition, once more, bridges the gap between findings of research and actual classroom procedures by which these goals may be obtained.

The new edition presents information which enables teachers to evaluate present-day practices and to determine for themselves "best methods" of instruction. It helps educators clarify their thinking on controversial issues so that they can interpret changing methods to parents and to other members of the community. As in the first edition, all procedures and activities have been tried out successfully by experienced teachers who were students in the writer's college and university classes.

Unique to this book is a section devoted to teaching reading as a thinking process. The values of teaching children to read critically and creatively have been discussed to a great extent during the past few years, yet little help has been offered to enable teachers to guide children in these higher levels of thinking. Part Five, *A Teacher Plans to Further Reading as a Thinking Process*, defines skills needed at this higher level and suggests classroom procedures and activities for developing the skills.

Part Six, *A Teacher Plans an Effective Reading Program*, presents a critical discussion of basal, co-basal, and individualized reading programs which encourages teachers to evaluate each program and form their own conclusions concerning methods which they can use most advantageously and ways to organize successfully combined programs.

Although the organization of content around major concerns of

school staffs has been maintained, every chapter has been revised and extensively rewritten. A step-by-step program of phonics instruction in Part Four enables teachers to develop the fundamental skills of word recognition more efficiently. Part Seven includes a more complete discussion of the use of sensory aids. In Part Eight there is a comprehensive section on appraising pupil growth and evaluating a reading program.

In preparing the second edition, the writer has carefully studied the research for the past ten years for ideas which would result in more successful classroom instruction in reading. During this time the writer has had occasion to work closely with teachers in many parts of the United States and in Puerto Rico. Through these contacts the necessity of being practical and of bridging the gap between research and actual classroom procedures has been emphasized.

The writer is grateful to the many teachers and administrators for their cooperation in the work, and to the publishers who graciously permitted the use of quotations and reproductions from readers and manuals.

Kathleen B. Hester

Ypsilanti, Michigan
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A teacher studies reading

READING is a complex thought process that includes more than mere recognition of words on a printed page. Some teachers do not realize this fact. They believe that a child who can say all the words on a page is a good reader. But frequently a child who recognizes words rapidly and phrases them well fails to know what he has read. Nancy was such a pupil.

Nancy was a ninth-grade student who was failing all her subjects in school. She had superior mental ability and an excellent home background. When she read orally she pronounced every word correctly and phrased well. But when she had finished reading she had not the slightest idea of the content.

The difficulty with Nancy, as with many other children in our schools, was that she had learned to read in a school where the teacher failed to understand the real meaning of reading. In this case the teacher thought ability to recognize words constituted reading. True, word recognition is essential for reading. It is, however, a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

What, then, is reading? Some people believe that it is reading words on a page and getting the thought of an author. If teachers accept this definition and teach accordingly, the future generation will not have learned to evaluate. They will be ready victims for propaganda.

Reading in its real sense involves both steps mentioned—recognition of words and getting the thought of an author. In addition, it involves critical and creative thinking. A student must relate what he reads to his own experiences. He must interpret and evaluate the material, exercise reason and imagination, and fuse new ideas with previous learnings to gain power to think independently. Not until he can carry on these complex thought processes as he reads can he classify himself as a good reader.

CHAPTER 1 + THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRESENT-DAY METHODS

THE ABILITY TO READ with understanding and to read critically has not always been an objective of reading instruction in our country. A brief review of the history of reading in our schools will enable a teacher to understand better our present-day objectives.

In the very early history of our country boys were taught to read in Latin grammar schools to enable them to be educated for the ministry. Emphasis was entirely upon reading for religious purposes. *The New England Primer,* which was the first reading textbook specifically designed for America, taught reading, spelling, religion, and morals. Younger pupils had learned the alphabet, simple letter combinations, and the "Lord's Prayer" from the hornbook before beginning the Latin grammar school. Since the purpose of reading was to enable boys to become ministers or, as fathers, to read the Bible to their families, oral reading was emphasized. In schools, reading was largely oral because of a dearth of materials; books were scarce and expensive.

A pupil learned the alphabet, then syllables beginning with simple two-letter combinations, as *ab, ac, ad,* and proceeded to complex words like *e-di-fi-ca-ti-on* and *mor-ti-fi-ca-ti-on.* Then came prayers, hymns, *The Shorter Catechism,* and other religious and moral materials. He said them over and over again until he had learned them entirely by rote. There was no attention paid to the difficulty of vocabulary, no provision made for practice of words learned, and references to methods were rare. The psychology of approach and the philosophy of instruction may well be summed up in two quotations from *The New England Primer:*[1]

He that ne'er learns his A,B,C,
For ever will a Blockhead be.

[1] *The New England Primer,* Twentieth Century Reprint, Ginn and Company, Boston.

Job feels the rod
Yet blesses God.

Our break politically with Great Britain at the time of the Revolutionary War caused politics to replace theology in readers. Leaders of the people felt a real need to unify the colonists. Since the colonists had come from different parts of Europe, many of them still spoke their native language. The first step in unification meant speaking and understanding our language. Thus our schools began to place great emphasis upon oral reading and speaking the English language correctly. To accomplish this aim, stress was placed upon correct pronunciation of words. One of the most widely used books of this time was *The Blue Back Speller*. Its first 25 pages were rules of instruction on pronunciation of words. Of the 158 pages, 74 were devoted to lists of words and syllables.

The content of books had changed markedly. Stories were about the greatness of our land and its people and were either nationalistic or moralistic in nature. Many selections written by American authors were included. The teaching methods used were similar to those of the religious era. Pupils learned words by alphabet, syllables, and spelling out a word. The same material was read and reread until a pupil knew it from memory, and he had to be able to read it orally with sufficient expression to sway his audience.

In about 1840 Horace Mann began to make some scathing criticisms of the way in which reading was taught in our schools. He visited Prussian schools, and found their methods far more interesting and effective. He found that instead of the rote–alphabet system used in our schools, Prussians were using a picture–sounding procedure. A picture was shown to children with a word below it, and children were told the word. In addition to telling pupils the word, the schoolmaster then told the sounds of the letters and the letter combinations, but not the alphabetic names of the letters. Then pupils traced the word, first in air with their fingers, and later on their slates.

As an outgrowth of dissatisfaction with reading methods used in our schools, new books began to appear. Contents covered a wider

range of informational subjects, such as science, philosophy, and art, and pictures became more plentiful. Series of graded readers such as the McGuffey Readers began to appear. Methods of teaching changed greatly. The influence of the famous Pestalozzian method of object teaching began to be felt. The alphabet–syllable procedure was replaced; pupils were taught the phonetic sounds of letters rather than alphabetic names. Emphasis was placed upon learning sounds of letters and whole words.

It was not until about 1880 that getting the thought became one of the objectives in reading instruction. Although expressive oral reading was still popular, emphasis began to be placed upon understanding the content of what was read. Reading became a cultural asset.

A need to know what and how to teach became evident. As a result professional books began to appear and courses of study in reading were constructed. Many supplemental materials were introduced to enrich the reading program.

Changes in methods of teaching reading continued to be made to meet new objectives. The whole-sentence-and-story method developed from the word method. Teachers felt that if presentation of a word with a picture caused children to learn to read more rapidly and with meaning, presentation of a whole sentence at a time or a paragraph would be that much more effective. A study by Cattell in 1886 brought out the value of learning to read by use of meaningful sentences. Very elaborate phonetic methods were introduced. Stress was placed upon learning all the sounds an individual letter could have and the rules that governed each sound. Alphabet and spelling methods were abandoned, and new techniques of teaching were used to arouse interest in and appreciation of reading.

Immediately following the First World War, emphasis was placed upon reading for utilitarian purposes. During the war the use of tests had developed rapidly. Tests in reading were used widely to determine comprehension and speed. Tests to reveal weaknesses in reading—diagnostic tests—began to appear and to be used. Test-

ing programs disclosed that although pupils were able to pronounce difficult words through the use of elaborate phonic systems in vogue at the time, comprehension of material read was poor and rate of reading was low. These findings caused a strong reaction against oral reading and the use of phonics, and there began to be almost exclusive emphasis upon silent reading.

The results of diagnostic reading tests caused many investigations to be made, and many publications on diagnostic and remedial reading appeared. Professional books and courses of study became popular, and teachers' manuals came into general use. The whole aim of reading instruction was to teach efficient silent reading to enable an individual to meet the practical needs of life.

In about 1925 stress was placed upon reading for a variety of purposes. Objectives were broadened to include the development of habits, attitudes, and skills essential to various reading activities in which a pupil engaged in a classroom; to develop permanent interests in reading; and to extend experiences of pupils through reading activities. In order to attain these objectives, numerous studies were made to determine children's interests and the purposes for which children read in a classroom. It was during this period that preprimers became popular and many supplementary materials began to be used. Reading was integrated with other subjects in the curriculum. Professional books, manuals, and courses of study were widely used.

There began to be a slight reaction to overemphasis on silent reading. Oral reading had been excluded in some places. Although reading was considered a tool and was taught for utilitarian purposes, now it was found that a certain amount of oral reading was necessary in a classroom. As a result, phonics began to be presented but were still questioned seriously.

An attempt was made to adjust reading instruction to meet the individual needs of pupils. Teachers began to group pupils into rigid groups for reading instruction. A pupil who was placed in a slow reading group usually remained in this group for an entire year. Each group was expected to "cover" the same content so that

the adjustment was in the speed of reading these materials rather than in the adaptation of content or activities for the development of the pupils.

With the 1930's came emphasis upon diagnostic testing and remedial reading. Testing programs had advanced to the extent that tests for the determination of specific reading difficulties were widely used. The results of the tests caused general concern among educators, and reading laboratories and clinics were organized in colleges and universities to help schools study their reading problems. Many public schools inaugurated special remedial reading classes.

Scientific studies on the causation and remediation of reading difficulties were published with the result that basic readers were more carefully graded. Vocabulary was so carefully controlled that the interest and appeal of stories had second place and many pre-primer stories were merely repetitions of words or phrases. Vocabulary lists were published and used widely.

In addition there was a change of method in which oral reading began to occupy a place in reading programs again. Teachers considered individual pupils more carefully, grade standards were not adhered to so closely, and there was a growing realization that pupils in the same grade needed readers of different grade levels. Procedures to teach pupils who had difficulty in learning to read were developed.

The results of the scientific studies conducted during the period of remedial reading proved valuable in helping educators to plan the newer methods of teaching reading that are used today. Elaborate phonetic systems that caused a slow rate of reading have now been discarded to make place for new functional phonics programs. In the same manner the successful instructional procedures of each historical period have been adapted and integrated into present teaching methods, and very complete manuals suggesting the most effective ways of presenting each story are a part of reading programs.

The prevention of reading difficulties was emphasized in the

1950's. In some reading series the early symptoms of reading difficulties were called to the teacher's attention and constructive teaching procedures were suggested for overcoming these difficulties before they become serious reading problems.

Different methods of grouping pupils were advocated and changes were made. Pupils were grouped on the basis of needs rather than ability, and groups were kept flexible to enable a pupil to change to another group when the one he was in no longer met his needs. Emphasis was placed upon adapting instruction to individual needs, and specific teaching procedures for less mature and more mature pupils were provided to help a teacher individualize reading instruction.

The contents of readers were varied to teach a pupil how to read for all his needs. Poetry, drama, classical literature, and work-type materials were included. Both oral and silent reading skills were developed.

With the 1960's educational leaders have turned their attention to teaching reading as an art of thinking. Criticism is directed against overemphasis on "parroting" the teacher in answers to questions. Children are encouraged to think and to react to the content of a story or article. Teachers are no longer afraid of thought questions to which there are no stereotyped answers.

This change in emphasis has been brought about because of the growing realization that the future of a democracy is dependent upon the ability of the people to read critically and creatively. The fact that our chief protection against propaganda lies in our people's ability to react to and evaluate ideas encountered in reading, radio, television, and motion pictures makes it imperative that boys and girls not only understand what an author says but also learn to respond with thoughts and feelings which they themselves contribute.

Content is important in teaching these higher-level reading skills. Many selections in basic readers which are valuable for teaching word attack, comprehension, and study skills do not lend themselves readily to teaching reading as an art of thinking. As a result co-

basal and supplementary readers with literary content rich in values which can be used as bases for thinking, for critically evaluating, and for understanding human relationships are finding their way onto classroom shelves.

Teachers are more enthusiastic about teaching reading than ever before. They find it a thrilling experience to watch children who, with "stars in their eyes," catch the joys of creatively adventuring with an author to become "readers."

CHAPTER 2 ✤ HOW CHILDREN LEARN TO READ

THE DEVELOPMENT of each pupil to the limits of his capacity offers a challenge to the skill of a teacher in presenting reading materials. The question that confronts a teacher at this point is, "What method shall I use?"

Many teachers feel that if they can get a child who is a superior reader to explain how he has learned to read, their problems will be solved. Miss Notley was a teacher who tried this approach.

Bobby and Peter were superior readers in first grade. They could read any stories in primary books. They always knew the words. One day Miss Notley asked Bobby how he could tell what the words were. He said he did not know exactly but that if he looked at a word he could usually tell because it started like another word he knew and ended like still another word. But when she asked Peter, he too replied he did not know.

"I will show you, though," he said.

Whereupon he went to the blackboard and drew a picture of a baby carriage.

"That is the word *Guess*."

He said he could always tell words by pictures they made.

Miss Notley discovered that although she had two excellent readers, their approaches in learning to recognize symbols were entirely different.

Since there are individual differences in the ways by which children learn to read, it can well be said that there is no one best method to teach reading. An alert teacher understands the several approaches used by her pupils. She is aware, too, of the meaning of reading.

RECOGNIZING WORDS AND ATTACHING MEANINGS

When a child begins to learn to read, he does so through relationship of an object or picture to a symbol or word which represents the object or picture.

Let us follow this process by using a code in which the combinations of letter symbols are strange to us, just as letters are to a child when he starts to try to read. If you see the symbols *Nurrw* they mean nothing. But if this word appears with a picture of a dog, you learn through observation of the dog and discussion directed by a teacher that the dog's name is *Tippy*. Thus you soon know *Nurrw* says *Tippy*. Later when a teacher presents the symbols *Oppnv* and lets you see in your reader a picture of a kitten with white markings on her legs that look like little white boots, you learn that *Oppnv* under the picture says *Boots*.

Now if you look at the picture in the next story you see the dog suddenly drop his ball and look excitedly at the kitten. Is it hard, then, if the teacher guides the discussion and raises the question "What does Tippy see?" to conclude that the sentence *Nurrw vmmv Oppnv* means *Tippy sees Boots?*

In this manner a child learns that these queer symbols convey meaning. He makes meaningful associations between symbols and pictures until he is able to recognize symbols without a picture in any context. These symbols comprise a pupil's sight vocabulary, which is important in learning that symbols convey meaning. But our language is too complex for children to depend upon recognition of whole word forms only. Soon a child begins to notice likenesses and differences in the words presented to him. In our code, for example, *vmmv* (sees) and *vpzmncuax* (something) begin alike; *vmmv* and *fgav* (runs) end alike; the little word *vmm*, which the child already knows as *see*, is a part of the new word *vmmuax* (seeing). Thus the child lays a foundation for structural and phonic analyses of words.

Sometimes a child is reading and comes upon a word which he does not recognize by sight and cannot work out through analytical procedures, but which he can guess from the meaning of the rest of the sentence. This procedure is known as context reading. For example, if a pupil knows the words *Nurrw* (Tippy), *Oppnv* (Boots), and *lppbme* (looked), he may readily guess the new word

kn in the sentence *Nurrw lppbme kn Oppnv* (*Tippy looked at Boots*).

Reading by context is an acceptable method of attacking words because it stimulates reading for meaning. Carried too far, or used in material containing too many unknown words, it becomes dangerous, and children must be guided wisely in its use.

Teachers find that with some children visual and auditory approaches are not sufficient to reinforce associations between symbol and spoken word. They need to learn a new word through feeling it, as a mechanic, feeling around in the dark under a car, is able to tell exactly what is there. This procedure is known as the *kinesthetic approach*. A pupil actually gets the feel of a word through tracing it with his finger or his pencil while he thinks and says the word. This type of exercise is usually presented in dotted line exercises which look like this:

Tippy

A pupil traces the word as he looks at it and says the word softly to himself.

A good reader is able to utilize all of these methods—sight recognition, phonic and structural analyses, and context clues—to translate symbols into meaningful concepts. The extent to which he uses each approach is determined by individual differences. Some pupils learn more readily through visual associations, others through auditory associations, still others through kinestheses.

Although recognizing words is a first step in learning to read, the ability to call out the words across a page does not constitute reading. Children must be given guidance not only in recognizing words and attaching meanings, but also in learning to fuse mean-

ings into ideas, to look for implied meanings, and to react to what they have read.

FUSING MEANINGS INTO IDEAS

When words are put together in sentences they mean much more than the same words read separately. Suppose, for example, a child knows the words *fair, to, come, animal, the*. He can read each one, but in all probability he does very little thinking as he says the words. But arrange these same words into a sentence, such as the opening of an announcement,

<p align="center">Come to the animal fair.</p>

and thinking is stimulated. The first thing he does after recognizing the words is to try to understand the meanings. If a child has ever been to a fair, he will immediately begin to make rich meaningful associations. He recollects experiences and organizes them to get the full meaning of the writer. Questions begin to pop into his head. And it is then that he engages in a third step.

LOOKING FOR IMPLIED MEANINGS

What kinds of animals will be there? Who will bring them? Will the animals perform tricks? Shall he bring his pet? And, if he is a boy, will there be things to eat—popcorn, candy, ice cream? Shall he bring money? To answer some of his questions, a child organizes and uses information about fairs and animals which he has gained previously. For other questions, he is spurred to read on to find more information to satisfy his needs.

After a pupil has read the whole announcement and thought about it, he then engages in a higher level of reading.

REACTING TO WHAT IS READ

At this level a reader concerns himself with the ideas of a writer and reacts to them. In the case above a child might do a bit of critical and evaluative reading. He might challenge the invitation and ask himself, "Will it be fun? If I bring a pet, is there danger

of his getting lost or hurt? Will Daddy advance next week's allowance so that I can buy some things?"

This is an active type of reading in which a person becomes a part of what he reads. He challenges every statement, reads critically and creatively, decides what he is willing to accept, appreciates that which is appealing, and responds with thoughts and feelings which he himself contributes. He becomes a co-author and makes words live. A teacher must understand that ability to read at this highest level is not acquired easily or suddenly. Reading skills, whether mechanical, study-type, or creative, must be taught systematically.

Alert teachers become acquainted with the hierarchy of skills essential for successful reading; they provide experiences which foster growth at each level of reading and use a diversity of methods to meet the needs of every pupil. Teachers learn that what the great English poet and statesman Macaulay said more than a century ago is true: "A page digested is better than a volume hurriedly read."

PART TWO

A teacher studies factors affecting children's growth in reading

A QUESTION that arises in the mind of a teacher is "How can I help each pupil to become proficient in the skills of reading, to use reading to meet his needs in today's world, and to read of his own free will for pure enjoyment?"

Studies show that pupils in many classrooms experience great difficulty in learning to read and are not reading as well as they are capable of doing, even though they may be meeting standards set for the grade. What can be done to prevent this situation from continuing?

The answer to the problem is not a simple one because reading is a complex process. The first thing a teacher needs to do is to survey her classroom. As she looks at her pupils she should ask herself, "Are my pupils able to profit by the instruction which I offer? At what levels of maturity are they?"

A knowledge of the status of each child regarding the factors affecting his growth in reading is essential if pupils are to succeed to the limits of their abilities. The importance of maturation and timing at every reading level is so great that it cannot be neglected. Maturation has a direct bearing on needs and abilities of pupils. Good timing is necessary in everything we do in life if we are to get most effective results. The reader must often have sat down to a carefully prepared meal, only to find that the extent to which he was ready to eat played an important role in the success of the dinner. If one is not well physically or if one is emotionally upset, does this not influence one's attitude toward the meal?

Patterns of maturation and individual needs are not the same for all children. Teachers must be aware of this fact if they are to provide classroom instruction in reading that is suitable for every child. She must study her pupils to discover at what level they are mentally, physically, socially, and emotionally. If this is done, children will have far greater success in learning to read effectively. It is of utmost importance that every child have specific work which will develop him along the lines in which he needs to make progress. Then, and then only, will children have the feeling of accomplishment that is so essential in learning to read.

CHAPTER 3 ✦ STUDYING MENTAL GROWTH

MATURATION PLAYS an important role in learning to read successfully. It is common knowledge that an infant does not walk immediately after birth and that it is not possible to teach him to walk until he has reached a certain level of maturity. Likewise every child does not begin to talk at exactly the same age. Due to individual variations some children begin to walk at nine months of age while others may not be successful in this skill until they are sixteen or seventeen months old. No mother becomes unduly alarmed if her child does not begin to walk on his first birthday. She encourages the child and waits for him to mature to a point where he can succeed.

Schools, however, have failed to teach parents that success in the skills of reading also requires a certain degree of maturation. They have led the public to believe that a pupil begins to read when he is six years old, and if he does not succeed at this time, there is great concern on the part of parents, and too often on the part of a teacher. There may be many reasons why a baby did not walk until he was eighteen months old. But his parent or his teacher frequently refuses to recognize that there may be reasons why he does not read at the chronological age of six.

The first factor to investigate in teaching a child to read is his mental maturity. Has a child the native ability necessary for reading at his grade level? There is not a perfect correlation between success in learning to read and mental ability. In general, however, the consensus seems to be that intelligence represents certain fundamental abilities that make learning possible. These mental abilities are measured by tests of academic aptitudes. There is great variability in mental-test scores because different tests measure different functions or aptitudes. These tests differ so widely in what they measure that their scores—mental ages or intelligence quotients— must be referred to in relation to the name of the test.

The important thing for a teacher to understand and remember is that mental age is a factor in learning to read at any level, but that it is only one factor, and not the most important one, which contributes to a child's success in reading.

Utmost care must be taken to obtain an accurate measure of a child's mental ability. Errors are frequently made because mental ages of children are usually determined by group intelligence tests which involve reading, and a child who has difficulty in reading and cannot read the questions on such a test will make a low score. Mental age derived from such a test will not be indicative of a pupil's true mental age. He will be penalized because he cannot read the questions. In such cases it is necessary to use an intelligence test that does not require a child to read, in order to obtain a more accurate measure of his mental ability. If this type of test is not available, it is possible to use another method of determining a child's potential ability to read at a given level. This procedure is described on page 72, "Auditory Comprehension Measures."

When a satisfactory mental age has been established, a teacher is then in a position to determine whether or not a child has the mental capacity to learn to read at that grade level. If a pupil's mental age is below that advocated for beginning reading in the school in which he is placed, formal reading instruction may be delayed and a period of prereading instruction should be provided. If a child has such a low mental age that there is little promise of his ever learning to read in a regular classroom situation, the problem lies outside the province of a reading teacher. If, however, a child has a mental age sufficient for success at his grade level, his failure to read is a teacher's problem.

Children retarded in mental age will usually be retarded in reading also. Such children are present in all grades in all schools. They do not have the capacity to read at the grade level in which they are placed. They are the objects of a great deal of unnecessary concern. Many teachers try to make them read "up to grade." Hazel was such a child.

Hazel entered second grade of a certain school at the age of seven

years and three months, and in a very short time it became apparent that she was unable to do the work of the grade. Tests disclosed that she was reading at a level of first grade, second month, and that her mental age was six years and one month on the Revised Stanford-Binet Individual Intelligence Test. Although her reading achievement was one year and five months below what is normally expected for middle second grade, Hazel was not a retarded reader except in the sense that her mental capacity was below that expected for her chronological age. She was doing as well as she could for her mental age. There was no disparity between what she was achieving in reading and what was expected for her mental age.

Such children require a reading program adjusted to their capacities. Since they are not mentally "up to grade," instruction should be adjusted to their needs, and they should be taught at whatever level their mental age places them.

In each grade the problem is one of early determination of the true mental ages and capacities of the children and of adaptation of reading instruction to the mentally immature, to those of average maturity, and to those who are above the expected level of maturity for a given grade.

A careful study of the available tests should be made in order to select one that measures the mental abilities and skills required for reading but does not require too much reading on the part of a pupil. With increased recognition of the dangers of judging a child's mental ability on the basis of results from an intelligence test which requires reading, certain tests have been constructed to enable teachers to obtain separate mental-age scores for the parts of a test which require reading (verbal) and the parts which do not require reading (nonverbal). In cases of reading disability, careful consideration should be given to the results of nonverbal subtests.

Some representative group tests from which satisfactory indexes of children's academic aptitudes may be obtained are listed here. Pupils with language handicaps should be measured with nonverbal tests.

The California Tests of Mental Maturity, K–12 (Elizabeth T.

Sullivan, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs), California Test Bureau are available for preprimary (K–1), primary (1–3), and elementary (4–8) grades and two upper levels. All forms provide three mental ages: language, nonlanguage, and total. This is a group test which can be administered by classroom teachers. Since it gives a nonverbal score it is a very useful instrument.

The Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Test, K–12 (Fred Kuhlmann and Rose G. Anderson), 6th edition, Personnel Press, Inc. contains 39 separate subtests. The first 17 require no reading. The first 10 are for kindergarten and the first half of grade one. Tests 4 to 13 inclusive are for grade one, second semester. Tests 8 to 17 are for grade two, continuing upwards with 10 subtests for each grade level. The tests are somewhat complicated to administer but the directions are clear and complete. Each subtest is scored separately and scores are converted to mental ages. The scores may be plotted on a profile graph.

The Pintner General Ability Tests include the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Test, K–3, the Pintner-Durost Elementary Test, 2–4, and the Pintner Intermediate Test, 4–9. The Pintner-Durost Elementary Test, Scale 1, Picture Content, requires no reading. Oral directions are used in administering it. Scale 2, Reading Content, has printed directions. Children who are suspected of having reading disabilities should be checked with Scale 1 which requires no reading. These tests are published by Harcourt, Brace & World Inc.

More accurate measures can be obtained on questionable cases through use of an individual intelligence test. Such a test, however, requires a trained examiner for its administration and interpretation.

The Revised Stanford-Binet Scales published by Houghton Mifflin Company are valuable for this purpose.

The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children published by The Psychological Corporation is also valuable for individual testing.

Because these tests must be given individually by experienced examiners, they are usually given only to pupils who are suspected of having reading disabilities or to pupils about whom teachers need more information. Many other intelligence tests which can

be used to meet specific needs are described in *The Mental Measurements Yearbook*[1] edited by Oscar K. Buros.

Test scores are valuable only if they are given full consideration in the light of all other findings. It must be remembered that health and physical factors, emotional and personality factors can affect intelligence-test scores. A good examiner will take care to establish rapport before beginning to test children and will note any physical or emotional disturbances among pupils being examined. He will be aware also that some intelligence tests discriminate more than others against lower social classes. Children are penalized frequently because they have not had experiences which are required for successful performance of certain test items. Thus the results of an intelligence test should be supplemented by observations of a pupil's alertness to new situations, his curiosity regarding his surroundings, his ability to converse, the degree to which he can give sustained attention to a task, and his environmental opportunities. The results of these observations, together with a consideration of work habits, special abilities, motivation, and ability to get along well with others, in addition to test results, will give a teacher an indication of the level of maturity attained by a child and his mental capacity for the work of a grade.

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[1] Oscar K. Buros. *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, The Gryphon Press, Highland Park, N.J., 1959.

CHAPTER 4 ✦ STUDYING PHYSICAL GROWTH

Vision

MENTAL MATURITY ALONE is not sufficient for success in learning to read. Physical factors must be considered as well. Most obvious of the factors which facilitate or retard reading is vision. Studies indicate that more than three-fourths of a pupil's learning comes through the use of his eyes. A child who has a serious visual difficulty cannot be expected to learn to read efficiently. If the defect is sufficiently serious, it may cause total failure.

Sometimes visual difficulties are unrecognized by parents and teachers. Ronald is an example of such a case.

Ronald was an eager-looking, enthusiastic child who came to school for the first time in September. He wanted to come to school and do all the other things other boys and girls did. Several weeks passed. One day his teacher remarked that she was a little disappointed in Ronald. He was not quite living up to expectations. The group went from a prereading program to beginning reading. Ronald began to lag more and more. A revised Stanford-Binet score showed an I.Q. of 146. The teacher could not understand why such a bright boy should be failing to make progress. She reflected and recalled that Ronald could not even copy a letter she made on the board. An investigation was made. Ronald's eyes were checked with a telebinocular—an instrument for measuring visual difficulties—and he was unable to make a passing score on major items. His vision was extremely faulty. When questioned about it, Ronald assured the examiner he could see perfectly well.

Ronald's mother was persuaded to take him to a good eye specialist. The report from the specialist was returned with the notation that Ronald was suffering from a very serious eye defect, which, had it been permitted to continue, would have resulted in total blindness. The condition was such that Ronald could not possibly make any discrimination among such small objects as visual symbols.

Cases like this one occur frequently. Without a good visual test it is very difficult to detect such difficulties. Little children have no basis upon which to decide whether or not they are seeing well. Often a fear of being different keeps a child from admitting that he is having trouble. Visual difficulties of a lesser degree often cause fatigue of the eye muscles. After a child has read for a short time he becomes fatigued and does the natural thing—stops reading, except under pressure.

If a child is not making expected progress, a check-up of vision should be made immediately. A test that measures vision at reading distance as well as at farther distance is necessary. It is not fair to test a child's vision at the far-distant point, as is done in an ordinary school examination, then place him in a reading situation and assume all is well.

Reading is done at a point about 14 inches from the eyes for prolonged periods of time. Many teachers and parents fail to realize that visual demands at this point are not the same as the demands for distance. Reading requires the ability to focus both eyes clearly upon an image and coordinate. In a classroom a child must be able to shift focus and converge quickly and accurately from his book to various points in a classroom and back again within a fraction of a second.

A child is not born with the visual skills required for reading. The usual order of development is from the ability to perceive light, to the ability to move the eyes toward light, to differentiate color and intensities of light, to differentiate objects, to focus clearly upon objects, to recognize objects, to coordinate eye and hand, to carry on specialized visual skills such as reading.

A good visual analysis must be made, therefore, upon the basis of tests administered at reading distance with eyes actually engaged in the seeing process. A complete analysis will include tests which measure focusing performance, that is, the ability to maintain consistent focus for prolonged periods of time; eye-movement performance; acuity coordination; and ease of fixating and focusing.

Only on the basis of results from such tests can it be said that a child's eyes are in condition to engage in reading activities.

Complete analyses should be made by reputable eye specialists who make functional investigations of all areas included in the reading process. Because such an investigation is time-consuming, many practitioners do not make this type of analysis. Teachers and parents have a responsibility to locate eye specialists in their areas, who investigate aspects of vision which are related to reading performance.

Initial screening-out tests may be made by teachers. In no case should a teacher attempt to specify the kind of visual disability present; she should simply locate pupils who should be referred for examination. Several tests are available which detect some conditions overlooked by the Snellen Test and which sort out visual difficulties at reading distance as well as at farther distance.

The Keystone Visual Survey Telebinocular is distributed by Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania. Stereoscopic slides are used to detect indications of near and far-point fusion difficulties, visual acuity difficulties, muscular imbalance, binocular efficiency, and depth perception. An advantage of this test is that it appraises visual functions similar to those used in reading situations. It can be administered by a classroom teacher after a short period of training.

The Eames Eye Test is distributed by World Book Company, Yonkers, New York. It is less expensive than the telebinocular, detects most visual difficulties found in school children, screens out problems in visual acuity, binocular coordination, and fusion difficulties, and is very easy to administer.

The Ortho-Rater, distributed by Bausch and Lamb, Rochester, New York, has been used in industry and is now being adapted for use in schools. This is rather an expensive investment, using stereoscopic slides to detect difficulties of visual acuity, binocular coordination, and depth perception.

An alert teacher will supplement a formal analysis with observations of pupils' visual behavior in a classroom. An informal check

on children's ability to see may be made by placing on a black-board ledge some small pictures which show children in different action poses. (See page 84, "See and Do" Test Cards.) Then each child starts at a distance from the pictures and moves forward toward them until he reaches the maximum distance at which he can see each picture. He dramatizes the action in each picture to show that he can see it. Any child who has a noticeably different range of vision from that of other children in the group should be given a position in each group that will be most advantageous to him. In each instance in which defective sight is indicated, the information should be referred to proper authorities for further attention.

Conditions indicative of eye strain such as crusted, swollen, or continually red lids, profusion of sties, and watery eyes should be noted. Frowning, scowling, and excessive blinking may also indicate difficulty. Similarly, a child who has a dislike for reading and reading subjects, constantly loses his place, has a persistent desire to use his finger or a marker, jumps to a line above or below, or complains of letters and lines "running together" or "jumping" may be showing signs of a visual problem, regardless of results in any screening test. Such cases should be referred to an eye specialist also.

Helpful suggestions in studying visual difficulties may be found in a bulletin entitled *Teachers' Guide to Vision Problems*, issued by The American Optometric Association, 4030 Chouteau Avenue, St. Louis 10, Missouri.

Certainly no child can make his best growth in reading if he has serious visual difficulty or lacks ocular maturation. Even some pupils who appear to be achieving are progressing far below their potentials because of some visual difficulty. Instruction for such children should be adjusted until their vision is adequate. In cases of serious difficulty a pupil may be helped by being placed in a sight-saving class or in a school for the blind. In cases of ocular immaturity a pupil should have a continued prereading program to develop visual maturity and readiness to read.

Hearing

Hearing plays an important role in learning to read successfully and is a factor which must be considered. A child who has a hearing impairment too often lives in a world of confusion. A pupil who has a great hearing loss does not present as difficult a problem to the average classroom teacher as a pupil who has a slight hearing loss or a loss in the high- or low-frequency areas.

A marked hearing loss is very obvious. Usually the parent is acquainted with the problem, and the child, teacher, and parent are working together to overcome a definite physical handicap. A pupil with a slight hearing loss in all frequency areas is harder to find in a classroom. He is a pupil about whom a teacher remarks frequently, "Timmy pays no attention to what I ask the class to do until I get cross and speak directly to him." The teacher fails to realize that in speaking directly to Timmy she is enunciating clearly and is giving him an opportunity to read her lips as well. This child finds difficulty in learning to read because he cannot get a clear auditory pattern of word sounds.

Two types of hearing difficulties that are more difficult to detect are a loss in a high-frequency range and a loss in a low-frequency range. Some animals are able to hear sounds that we are unable to detect because these sounds vibrate with a frequency outside the normal range of human hearing. In the same manner, some children have an impairment which prevents them from hearing some sounds that are within the normal hearing range for human beings.

If a hearing loss is in lower-frequency areas only, a pupil will have difficulty with vowel sounds since these sounds occur in the low-frequency area. He is a child who hears *pin* for *pen, coat* for *cat, these* for *those;* who spells *habit, habet.* Sometimes he does not hear vowel sounds at all and will spell *leave* as *lv.*

The most serious loss in so far as reading is concerned, however,

is that of the second type—in high-frequently areas. Such a loss causes great difficulty in distinguishing consonants. From the standpoint of meaning, inability to hear consonants produces serious problems. *Beet* may sound like *bee*, *boat* like *bo*, *street* like *eat*, *stone* like *own*. Nor can a child always tell which word a teacher is saying just by watching her lips because approximately 50 percent of the English words are homophenous; that is, they are formed the same way in speaking but have no relationship in meaning. For example, *very* and *fairy* cannot be distinguished by merely watching the lips of a speaker. *Brown* and proud also have the same configuration. It makes quite a difference in meaning and it confuses a child if he hears the phrase *a little brown fairy* as *a little proud very*.

Sometimes young children who have this difficulty are quickly dismissed with a statement that they still talk "baby talk." Teddy was such a child.

Teddy was a child with a severe auditory defect. He was one of the most lovable six-year-old children entering first grade. "He still talks baby talk," explained his mother to the teacher when she brought him to school. Teddy began to lag behind his classmates before the end of the first quarter. He responded to correction of his speech very slowly. The teacher discussed the problem with his father, who remained adamant in his theory that Teddy had not yet outgrown his baby talk. With the introduction of reading the problem became more serious. The teacher became alarmed and requested an auditory examination. Findings disclosed a marked defect in hearing. The child had never heard correct pronunciations; therefore he could not identify letter sounds with any accuracy. This defect made progress in learning to read unattainable under the conditions existing in Teddy's school. He needed special adjustment and individual attention.

In our schools today there are many children similar to Teddy. Every effort should be expended by a classroom teacher to find the pupils in her group who are suffering from hearing difficulties before such impairments cause reading problems. In many schools screening-out tests are made by a classroom teacher through use of a group audiometer. This machine consists of a special phonograph

device and earphones through which children listen to numbers given in varying degrees of loudness and write down the numbers that they hear. Norms are provided to determine the amount of hearing loss. In some states these machines may be borrowed from the state department of public instruction.

Individual audiograms should be made where hearing losses are discovered. A pure-tone audiometer is used for this purpose. This test indicates not only to what degree hearing acuity is impaired but also in which areas it occurs, that is, whether the loss is in a high-frequency area or in a low-frequency area. Results of this test are meaningful to a teacher and to a physician. Pure-tone audiometers are distributed by several companies: Western Electric by Graybar Electric Company; Maico by the Medical Acoustic Company, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Sonatone Corporation, Elmsford, New York; C. H. Stoelting Company, Chicago; Aurex Corporation, Chicago; and others. Training and experience are necessary for a teacher to be able to prepare individual audiograms from results of individual audiometer tests. Further information about audiometers may be had by writing to the Council on Physical Therapy of the American Medical Association, Chicago, Illinois.

If an audiometer is not available, then an informal hearing test should be administered. This can be done by whisper and low-voice tests. To administer these, have a pupil hold a hand over one ear and turn the other ear toward you. Then give a command for the child to perform, such as, "Hop on one foot." Whisper tests are commonly given at a distance of about 15 inches, and low-voice tests at a distance of about 20 feet. A pupil who is being tested should move to a distance at which he can hear you, his back turned toward you to avoid lip reading. Note any child who shows adverse variation from the hearing ability of the other members of the class.

Hearing difficulties can be detected in a kindergarten child or beginner through use of the game "Find the Bell." Two bells are used, one with a high pitch and one with a low pitch. Pupils form

a large circle, and the child chosen to be "It" is blindfolded. The examiner takes the high-pitched bell, tiptoes to some part of the room, and rings the bell. The child who is "It" follows the sound to the place where the examiner is standing. If the child does it successfully, he chooses the next child to be "It." If he is unable to follow the sound and goes off in a different direction, the examiner advances slowly toward the pupil, ringing the bell, until the child is able to detect the sound and start toward it. Any variations in pupil behavior should be noted. The game should be played with a bell of low pitch the next time so that pupils with hearing losses of high-frequency or low-frequency areas may be screened out.

An alert teacher will supplement formal or informal tests with observations of pupils' hearing behavior in the classroom. He will note a child who shows symptoms such as the following:

Is inattentive in class

Frequently asks for repetition of statements

Often misunderstands directions

Listens with a tense facial or blank expression

Turns one ear toward the speaker

Speaks indistinctly

Confuses words which sound similar

Breathes through his mouth

Complains of ringing or buzzing in his ears

If a pupil shows signs of hearing impairment, either through classroom behavior or by results of screening tests, his parents should be notified and urged to have the child checked by a competent physician immediately. The idea that a child will outgrow little defects is absolutely false. Neglect in the early stages, repeated colds, earaches, running ears, common childhood diseases, malnutrition, and bad health habits cause thousands of children to be afflicted with one of life's worst handicaps—hearing impairment. Although not all hearing losses are irrevocable, the longer they are neglected the less chance there is for recovery. Every effort should be made by a teacher to impress parents with the importance of medical care.

In the classroom a teacher should help a pupil who has a hearing loss as much as possible by seating him advantageously. This does not always mean he should have a front seat; it means he should be seated near the place where a teacher does most of her talking and with his better ear to the group. Lucy's problem was solved in this manner.

Lucy was a pupil in first grade. She liked school very much. The teacher was well pleased with her progress. In November Lucy was placed with a group of children who were beginning formal reading. Things began to happen. Lucy was no longer the happy, well-adjusted child she had been formerly. A careful checkup of mental ability showed she was sufficiently mature to begin to read. On a reading readiness test she made a high score. Yet her confusion in reading became greater and greater. Several weeks later an audiometer test was given. Results of this test disclosed the fact that Lucy had normal hearing in the right ear but hearing in the left ear was greatly impaired. The teacher moved Lucy's place in the reading circle so that Lucy's good ear was toward the teacher. In a very short time the confusion was cleared up and Lucy regained her happy attitude and self-assurance, together with success in learning to read.

Pupils who have faulty hearing should be encouraged to watch the faces of those who are talking. A teacher can build this habit by being sure that she has attention of the pupil or the group before she begins to speak. She should stand still and away from a window when she is giving instructions or assignments, and she should be very careful to enunciate clearly and distinctly in a well-modulated voice. With proper care and consideration a pupil with a hearing loss can be helped so that he too can learn with ease and satisfaction.

If a teacher is aware of the problem facing her, she can adapt her procedure to minimize an oral phonetic approach with these children and stress visual methods of learning, thus enabling them to keep pace with other members of the group.

When a teacher has accumulated this information regarding the hearing status of each child, she will be able to proceed with reading instruction in a more intelligent manner.

Speech

Reading is talking. It is a form of communication. Not until the relationship between language and reading is understood can a teacher help children to develop into good readers. A child comes to school with a language pattern. He is able to express himself orally. In teaching reading a teacher helps a pupil to associate the spoken word with the visual symbol. It is extremely important, therefore, in order for a pupil to gain the benefit from reading in-instruction, that he be able to reproduce the sounds in words correctly. If he does not reproduce sounds correctly he will gain incorrect aural impressions. There will be a confusion between what he says, what he hears, and what he sees, which may block his progress in learning to read.

A majority of the speech difficulties found in a classroom can be overcome. For this reason it is important for a teacher to study her pupils in order that she may have a better understanding of causes of their faulty speech. There are many reasons for this difficulty. Some of the main ones are poor patterns of speech, sectional speech, mispronunciations of words heard at home, foreign-language difficulties, immaturity, loss of hearing, emotional disturbances, and serious physical and physiological defects.

COMMON CAUSES OF SPEECH DIFFICULTY

A POOR PATTERN OF SPEECH. Many cases of incorrect articulation are caused by poor speech patterns. Before a teacher can do much to improve the speech patterns of others, she must have a good pattern herself. A supervisor in a rural area had many complaints from parents of a certain district that their children were lisping. When the supervisor went to visit the school to find out what the trouble was, she was greeted at the door of the schoolhouse by the teacher with a cheery "I'm *tho* glad to *thee* you." The teacher was young,

attractive, and of a pleasing personality. Naturally the children imitated many of her ways, even the speech defect.

SECTIONAL SPEECH. Southern dialect, eastern American speech, etc., frequently cause difficulty. A New England child who attends school in the Midwest may have trouble in discrimination of speech sounds. He is at a loss to know what word a teacher has said or what word to associate with the printed symbol.

MISPRONUNCIATION OF WORDS AT HOME. This is sometimes a causal factor. At a meeting of teachers from several schools in one district a teacher complained that she was having a great deal of trouble with her fifth-graders, who were saying *w'ich* for *which* and making other *wh* errors. Several other teachers commented on the same difficulty. At this point the speech supervisor informed the faculty that if they would listen carefully to parents of these children they would find them making the same errors. Because of a specific foreign background in this area pupils had never had a clear auditory pattern of the *wh* sound. After the speech supervisor showed children that the *wh* sound is really *hw*, that it is made by combining the sounds of *h* and *w*, gently blowing out the *w* with an easy vibration of the lips, the difficulty began to clear up rapidly.

A FOREIGN LANGUAGE BACKGROUND. Incorrect articulation may result when a foreign language is spoken in the home. Children from these homes often have trouble with English sounds that do not occur in the native language of a family. Many times they associate a visual symbol with an incorrect auditory symbol. A child coming from a German-speaking family, for example, has difficulty frequently with a word such as *mother*. He sees *mother* but pronounces *mutter* because he has always heard and pronounced the German word. Foreign-speaking children are likely to have difficulty with *th*, *t*, and *d* sounds; with *v* and *w*; *l* and *r*; *ch* and *sh*; *j* and vowel sounds. They need much more work in auditory perception. Exercises suggested in Chapter 10 for the development of effective listening are helpful in assisting these children to overcome their confusion.

IMMATURITY. In early primary grades a child may not be speaking clearly because of immaturity. When a child enters school he

usually can pronounce vowel sounds clearly but may have difficulty in articulating many consonants. Many substitutions are normal for young children. Ogilvie[1] cites a table compiled by Davis which shows the ages at which most children are able to articulate certain sounds:

3.5 years	*p, b, m, w, h*
4.5 years	*t, d, n, g, k, ng, y*
5.5 years	*f, v, s, z*
6.5 years	*sh, zh, l, th (thin), th (this)*
8.0 years	*s, z, r, wh*

S and *z* sounds are listed at two different age levels because of difficulty in forming these sounds when children lose their front teeth. As with the acquisition of any skill, there will be great variability in the ages at which children master sounds.

LACK OF KNOWLEDGE. Many times a difficulty is due to slow development or *lack of knowledge* of how to form a sound. Ordinarily children learn to make sounds by imitation in speaking words and sentences. There are times, however, when it is necessary to show a child how to place the tongue. In one first grade the children were reading a story containing the new word "thank." Billy was having a great deal of difficulty trying to say the word. Carl looked at him a moment, then said, "That is an easy word, Billy. It's one of them words you bite your tongue on, like Thursday." The children had fun trying more *th* words to see which ones "you bite your tongue on."

It does not take a specialist to help children know how to form sounds when such a difficulty arises. It does require that a teacher know control of the tongue, lips, jaws, and soft palate herself. This information in simplified form for teacher usage is contained in some manuals for basic reading. A little study on the part of a teacher will often help a child to eliminate a difficulty before it becomes a source of embarrassment and results in social problems or a reading

[1] Mardel Ogilvie, *Speech in the Elementary School*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1954, p. 244.

disability. In more serious cases, however, a teacher should secure the services of a speech specialist.

INADEQUATE VOCABULARY.   Parents and teachers often become unduly alarmed over speech behavior of a kindergarten or early first-grade child who hesitates or repeats sounds. "What shall I do with Arnold? He has begun to stutter terribly when he talks," asks a worried mother or a teacher. This condition is common to the age at which children start school. At this time a child is thinking faster than he can express his thoughts. He does not yet have sufficient control of language and vocabulary. When he has enlarged his vocabulary and gained control of oral expression, stuttering will disappear. The only danger in these cases is that undue emphasis will be placed upon the difficulty by an anxious mother or teacher. If a child is made self-conscious of his fault, it may have a harmful effect on his speech development.

LOSS OF HEARING.   This is responsible for inaccurate articulation in some cases. If a child has poor auditory discrimination, he will probably have faulty articulation. The consonants *sh* for *ch*, *t* for *d*, *p* for *b*, *t* for *k*, *d* for *g*, and many others are frequently confused. Since the child has never heard these sounds clearly he is unable to reproduce them accurately. The effects of these confusions have been discussed in the previous section on hearing.

EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCES.   Such disturbances can produce speech disabilities. Children suffering from emotional upsets evidence various forms of speech behavior. Stuttering, defective articulation, indistinct speech, and certain vowel difficulties such as monotonous and high-pitched voices may stem from emotional problems. It is necessary in these cases for a teacher to study a child to determine the cause of the disturbance. Jimmy was a child who suffered from this type of disability.

Jimmy was a fifth-grade boy. He was a good student and well liked by his classmates. When he attempted to read orally or to talk to the class he suffered terrible embarrassment, however, because he stuttered so badly.

He wrote with his left hand, yet it was noted that he did some other

activities with his right hand. A series of simple dominance tests disclosed the fact that Jimmy was definitely right handed. The school history stated he had learned to write with his left hand in first grade because he had shown a preference for his left hand in coloring. In a conference his mother brought out the fact that Jimmy had been definitely right handed until he was about four years old. At that time he had a serious accident which temporarily blinded one of his eyes. After he recovered he began to color and scribble with his left hand. The line of vision was clearer when he used his left hand and therefore more satisfying.

When this situation was explained to Jimmy, he began to try to use his right hand at short intervals at first. Before long he used his right hand entirely. Soon emotional tension began to be relieved. In less than six months there was no trace of stuttering in Jimmy's speech or reading.

SERIOUS PHYSICAL DEFECTS.   Certain defects in speech require the attention of a speech specialist. An average classroom teacher cannot hope to cope with problems such as cleft-palate speech, spastic speech, mutism, hoarseness, and the speech of children who have extreme losses of hearing. Too often these children are neglected until the problem becomes so difficult it is almost impossible for them to overcome their handicap.

It is necessary, therefore, for a teacher to survey her classroom to determine how many children have clear articulation. A good procedure is to make a speech check list on which consonant sounds are listed across the top of a page, with a space for notation of specific speech disabilities such as lisping, sound omissions, substitutions, and voice qualities in the last column on the right-hand side of the page. Notations as to possible causes may be included also. Names of children in the class should be listed down the left-hand side of the page.

SPEECH CHECK SHEET

Name	m	p	b	(other consonant sounds)	Notations
Elsie	x	x	x	x	Cannot make some sounds
					Seems immature
John					Speaks clearly

If a child has difficulty with any sound, place a check or an "x"

after his name under the letters which cause difficulty. If he has any other speech disability, state its nature in the column headed "Notations."

Pictures may be used for testing a child's ability to articulate sounds clearly. Select pictures to represent each sound to be tested and have the child pronounce the name of the picture, as *man* for *m* sound. Do not attempt to have a pupil say the sound of the letter alone. A composite picture containing several sounds may be used. Ask the child to tell a story about the picture and note any speech disabilities on a check sheet. Continue testing until each child has had an opportunity to pronounce each word containing the sounds to be tested. Consonant sounds that should be tested are *m, p, b, w, wh, f, v, th* (thimble), *t, d, s, z, sh, ch, j, l, r, n, ng, h, g* (goat), *qu, k, y, x* (express). It is well to include vowel sounds and consonant blends as well. This testing program should be carried on over a period of several weeks for a short time each day. It may be integrated with a language program.

When a check sheet has been completed, a teacher will have a composite picture of all speech difficulties present among her pupils. She cannot hope to diagnose all difficulties properly, but she will be able to identify many of them, refer the most serious cases to a speech specialist, and treat many of the common speech faults sucessfully. With this information at hand she will be able to guide her pupils more effectively along the pathway to successful reading.

General Health

A child who is healthy and alert has greater chance for success in learning to read than a child who has a low general state of health. For this reason it is important for a teacher to be aware of health conditions among her pupils, and to do everything within her power to improve these conditions. Poor health conditions become evident through many different types of pupil behavior.

SYMPTOMS OF LOW HEALTH STATUS

SCHOOL ABSENCES. Frequent or long absences are obvious indications of low health status, although a child who is absent a day or two at a time is more likely to suffer in his reading than a pupil who has one or two longer absences. A glance at the school history in the case of a child with a long absence will give a clue to a teacher. She can easily determine what important steps a pupil missed at that time. These steps can be rebuilt to bring a pupil to a place where he can profit by present instruction. It is more difficult to know which major concepts have been missed in the case of a child with short, frequent absences.

A NEGATIVE ATTITUDE. Such an attitude toward all instructional help marks a physically unfit pupil. He becomes resentful of criticism and his feelings are hurt easily. The reader, no doubt, can recall times during an illness when tactless remarks that ordinarily would occasion no response have hurt him deeply. A person's whole outlook on life is dictated to a certain degree by his physical health.

INABILITY TO ATTEND. Many times a child who is below par physically is unable to *hold his attention* on a given task for more than a few minutes at a time. He works by fits and starts or he may be constantly inattentive. If his condition persists he may build work habits according to this pattern. Howard was such a child.

Howard was very ill with scarlet fever during the second semester of second grade. He returned to school about six weeks before the close of the semester. He was still weak and complained of being tired. The teacher noticed he was able to work well for about 15 minutes in the morning and after that he just sat. His parents and physician were contacted and the physician recommended that Howard be permitted to rest with his head on the desk any time he became tired. It worked out quite well for a while.

Next fall it was noted that Howard continued to rest periodically. The doctor claimed he was physically fit. As the teacher watched more closely, she discovered that the rest periods always occurred during specific work periods. An assignment of an arithmetic page always brought on a rest period for Howard, regardless of time of day. The same was true for other assignments he did not like. It took quite a lot

of patient work with Howard to help him overcome the use of a rest period as a means of escape and to help him rebuild good work habits.

EXTREME NERVOUS CONDITIONS. Such conditions may be occasioned by a lack of physical fitness. A child who is unable to sit still for more than a few minutes at a time and cannot wait his turn in speaking or concentrate on a task at hand may be ill. Bobby behaved in this way.

Bobby was a sixth-grader who rated among the gifted in mental development. Yet he almost drove his teacher crazy. Every time she began to say something Bobby finished it—and he was always right. He fidgeted constantly and never attended to a task longer than two or three minutes at a time. There was no doubt that he presented a problem in the classroom. Moreover, he was not profiting by instruction as well as he should for a boy of such high mental ability. Some of his former teachers said he was "just a smart aleck."

The sixth-grade teacher thought differently. During a conference with his mother, the teacher urged her to take Bobby to a good physician for a thorough physical examination. Mother and Bobby returned with a note from the physician stating that "Bobby is a little nervous." Several weeks later the teacher persuaded the mother to take her son to a child specialist. This time she returned very much worried but appreciative of the teacher's insistence on another physical examination. The doctor had found Bobby to be suffering from a severe case of rheumatic fever which had already affected his heart but would have been fatal within a short time had it not been discovered.

FATIGUE. A child who is *constantly tired* is unable to devote himself to learning to read to the limit of his ability. A feeling of fatigue may result from poor physical health. A child who is undernourished or who does not get sufficient rest is likely to be lethargic or high-strung. Glandular disorders may also cause this type of behavior. Paul was such a child.

Paul was a very lethargic fifth-grade pupil. He was unable to read at second-grade level, although tests showed that he had the capacity to read at sixth-grade level. One day the teacher had the pupils fill out an interest inventory on the question "What do you like to do best?" Paul wrote "Sleep." He also stated that the thing he liked to do best after school was to sleep and that the thing he liked to do on holidays was to sleep until four or five o'clock in the afternoon.

The teacher informed the mother during a parent conference that such a desire to sleep was not natural for a boy of his age, especially since his mother had said Paul was always in bed by eight o'clock in the evening. The teacher suggested that the mother have Paul undergo a thorough physical examination. The doctor discovered a glandular disorder and began treatments. A year later the mother reported that there was such a change in Paul she could hardly believe he was her boy. The teacher reported that Paul had improved in his school work to the extent that he was reading "up to grade."

MAINTAINING A HIGH LEVEL OF HEALTH

Physical health alone does not ensure success in reading, but it is such an important factor in the learning process that a teacher should make every effort to maintain a high level of health among her pupils. Her program should include a daily health checkup.

In one school children took turns at playing doctor and nurse. The doctor had a white coat and the nurse had a Red Cross outfit. Together with the teacher they examined each pupil's hands, fingernails, neck, face, and hair; asked if the pupil had brushed his teeth, what time he had gone to bed, and what time he got up. Discussions on proper meals for dietary needs were held from time to time. Many other health activities were developed by the group. A full-length mirror was placed in the room so that each child could examine himself and make necessary repairs before health inspection by the "doctor and nurse." Children enjoyed this activity very much, and few colds were reported during the year. With improved health status among pupils there was a noticeable increase in scholarship.

A periodic check on height and weight will help a teacher in her study of pupils. Reasons for loss of weight, no gain, or excessive gain of weight should be sought. Although a pattern of growth may not be smooth and even, variations from normal should be noted. These variations may be symptomatic and should be investigated.

Twice a year, if possible, or at least once a year, a child should have a thorough physical examination by a competent physician. This is a matter of routine in some schools. Too frequently, however, a cursory examination is given by an overworked school physician.

He does not have time to give a thorough check, with the result that sometimes a child suffering from a serious ailment such as rheumatic or undulant fever goes home with a certificate of good health.

Interest in pupil health can be fostered through parent conferences. The part that physical well-being plays in learning to read successfully needs to be explained. How many times has a primary teacher heard a mother remark, "If Johnny had to have measles and mumps and chickenpox, I am so glad he had them all this year while he was in first grade"—the implication being that it did not matter since children just played in first grade anyhow.

A wise teacher will not confine her conferences to times when children seem to have a low health status. She will compliment a parent on the favorable health conditions of a child as well. She will save a few minutes to allow Margaret's mother to explain what they are doing at home to help Margaret enjoy good health. In this way a teacher will establish rapport and confidence with parents. Then when it is necessary to enlist their aid, they will be ready to cooperate with the school.

CHAPTER 5 ✦ STUDYING SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL GROWTH

THE ABILITY TO LEARN at any age level is dependent to a certain extent upon social and emotional development. A child who is immature in these respects is not ready to profit to the fullest extent from classroom instruction. Reading as well as other learnings will suffer.

Since it is generally agreed that social and emotional maladjustments may be a cause of reading disabilities, it is very important for a teacher to study her pupils to attempt to find the reason that a child is not happy or fails to fit into a group. There are many reasons why children do not make adequate social and emotional growth, and some of the more common causes are discussed here.

COMMON CAUSES OF INADEQUATE SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL GROWTH

LACK OF PREPARATION. Not being prepared for entering a new school situation may cause poor adjustment with many children. This difficulty occurs most frequently when a child first enters school. If he has not felt secure in his home situation, he is likely to feel more insecure in a new experience. Many times parents have not handled a child wisely. They are overprotective and cause him to be too dependent so that he is afraid to try anything new. He has not been allowed to move from the family circle to the neighborhood group. Thus he is not ready to step into the wider circle of a school group. The same problem often arises when a rural child steps from a one-room school to a large township or city high school.

UNFORTUNATE HOME SITUATIONS. Such situations may also cause poor adjustment. Parents who nag a child constantly or who are quarreling between themselves leave a mark on him. Sometimes a child feels that he is forced to take sides between the two people he loves most. In some families he is taught to hate the other parent, with distressing results. Harry suffered from this experience,

41

Prereading experiences are meaningful

Harry was a first-grade pupil in a very pleasant classroom with an excellent teacher. He was a quiet, well-behaved boy, yet he did not make the expected progress for his mental ability. On reading readiness tests he scored high. No physical difficulty could be found. When children in his group began to read from books, he withdrew more and more. It was not until preparations for a Mother's Day program were being made that the teacher discovered the cause of his difficulty.

The children had planned a program and party for the day. Each child chose a little story to read, but Harry refused to make a choice. "I can't read" was his reply. The teacher offered to help him. She did everything she knew how to do to help him build confidence, but he refused to try. Finally, a few days before the program, she called Harry aside and talked to him. During the conversation she said, "Harry, don't you think your mother will be disappointed? You are the only one in the room who will not read a story for his mother." Harry looked up, his eyes ablaze, and with more feeling than one would dream a six-year-old could express shouted, "I won't learn to read. I hate my mother!"

The teacher asked the mother to come in for a conference. The mother readily admitted it was true. She said she had never loved the boy because of the feeling she had toward her husband. The boy knew it and

realized one way "to get even" was to refuse to learn to read because it was one thing his mother wanted him to do.

FAILURE TO BUILD A SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY. A child may be emotionally immature if he comes from a home where everything is done for him. Alan was such a child.

Alan had spent two years in first grade, one year in second, and two years in third grade, but had not learned to read. He had a rating of superior on a mental test, and a high rating on all other readiness tests including visual and auditory checks. When the home situation was investigated, Alan was found to be the center of attention. He was the only boy in the entire family relationship. He was king. When Alan put on his shoes, his sister tied them. At the age of ten, he had never been asked to accept any responsibility at home. Naturally he accepted none at school. When the situation was explained to the parents, they cooperated very well in giving Alan definite home responsibilities. Acceptance of these duties helped Alan to mature emotionally.

UNFAVORABLE COMPARISON WITH SIBLINGS. Emotional conflicts frequently arise from unfavorable comparison with brothers or sisters. Teachers and parents are both guilty on this score. How many times does a teacher greet a new pupil with the statement, "So you are Alice's sister. What an excellent reader she was. I expect you will uphold her splendid reputation." Long ago Alice's sister learned that this was an impossible thing to do. She withdraws into her shell. She has learned that the only way to protect her feelings is through a refusal to try to learn to read. There is no personality growth. The child is not encouraged to develop in her own way.

OVERANXIETY. If the teacher or parents are overanxious, this may be a contributing factor in many cases of emotional malajustment. The parents are afraid their child's failure to learn to read at the time society has set for this activity will be a reflection upon their own intelligence. When the kindergarten teacher recommended another semester in kindergarten for Donald, the father shouted indignantly, "Indeed not! Do you think I am going to give my neighbors a chance to say I am a dumbbell? I will see to it that Donald keeps up with his class."

CLASSROOM COMPETITION. Another major cause of social and emo-

tional problems is that of classroom competition in elementary school. A well-meaning teacher thinks she will encourage children to read through the use of an attractive wall chart. She tells the children that each one may cut out a little sailboat and paste it beside his name for each book he reads and then they will see who is the "Best Sailor of the Month." Instead of helping children emotionally, it causes a child who is having difficulty to feel more inferior. He becomes discouraged and quits trying. In addition, it frequently causes a child who is already superior to become a show-off, giving rise to a permanent maladjustment.

Individual competition in which the child tries to improve his own record is of great value. But group competition is dangerous at the elementary level. Many teachers propose the argument that people in adult life are competing with each other constantly and that therefore it is wise to teach pupils from the beginning that they must compete with a group. A major fallacy of this argument is that adults choose the fields in which they wish to compete. A person becomes a teacher because he feels he has an aptitude for that type of work, and he is ready and willing to compete with his fellow teachers. He would be very likely to make a poor showing in assembling an automobile, however, if he were forced to complete against a skilled automobile worker in this activity. Yet a child, regardless of his maturity level or specific aptitudes, is forced to compete in all classroom activities.

TEACHER'S PERSONALITY AND EMOTIONAL STATUS. We must not overlook the influence of the teacher as a cause of emotional maladjustments. A teacher who is unable to cope with her own personal problems and to adjust her life accordingly can offer little assistance to children who need her guidance. Good mental health on a teacher's part is a prerequisite to successful social and emotional growth of pupils.

If emotional and social immaturity and symptoms of maladjustment are discovered early by a teacher, proper guidance can be given before they block the learning of a child. An observant teacher will note types of behavior that cause a child to have difficulty in

getting along with a group. Behavior patterns such as those indicated below may indicate a child's need for help.

SYMPTOMS OF SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL IMMATURITY

INSTABILITY AND FLIGHTY ATTENTION. Inability to concentrate on a given task or a desire to flit from one activity to another may be due to emotional upsets. Betty asked her teacher one afternoon if she might be excused from arithmetic that day. "Because," she said, "something terrible happened at home. I can't think at all. I have butterflies in my stomach." Not all children are mature enough to be able to explain their reasons for flighty attention. Thus it becomes the job of a teacher to recognize the behavior and discover its cause.

RESISTANCE TO AUTHORITY. A refusal to learn to read may furnish the only emotional outlet for a child who is in conflict with parental and/or school authorities. Bobby was such a child.

Bobby was an eleven-year-old boy in fifth grade. He was a nonreader, and he was sulky and sullen. In school he caused every conceivable kind of trouble. During free activity periods he chose to play with clay. One day he was working alone very intently when the coordinator sat down beside him and expressed an interest in his activity. Bob had produced a beautiful working model of a French guillotine. "Watch," said Bobby as he placed the clay man's head on the cutting block. He tapped the desk with his finger, and as a clay knife suspended by a thread dropped on the neck of the man, the head rolled off. Bobby executed his victim several times with great satisfaction. When he was asked who the man was supposed to be, Bobby replied definitely, "My father. I wish I could really do it to him!"

Investigation disclosed the fact that Bobby and his father did not get along. He could not openly defy his father but he could refuse to learn. With the help of the family physician, the situation was soon cleared up. Bobby learned to read before the summer was over. He became a happy, normal boy.

INFANTILE BEHAVIOR. Many children who are emotionally immature resort to infantile behavor. A child feels insecure and needs to establish his position in a group.

FEELINGS OF INADEQUACY. A lack of emotional maturity may be detected when a child feels inadequate for the work and refuses to

try. Carl expressed this feeling plainly during an interview. "No need to spend any time on me 'cause I sit in the dumb row," was his opening statement.

Sometimes one may get a clue to a child's feelings by asking him to draw two pictures—one of himself at home and the other of himself at school. His size in relation to other parts of the picture may provide an interesting study.

WITHDRAWAL TENDENCIES. Daydreaming, extreme timidity, shyness, actual physical illness, and vomiting may stem from emotional maladjustments. A child who exhibits this type of behavior is frequently overlooked because he causes no trouble in a classroom. No one realized how Frank was suffering in the classroom until, during a diagnostic reading examination, the little nine-year-old looked up at the examiner in the most earnest manner and said, "Are you going to teach me how to read?" When the examiner replied, "Yes," Frank was very quiet for a minute. Then, looking up again with his big blue eyes, he said, "I'm so glad. Every night when I say my prayers, I say, 'Dear God, please let me read better tomorrow.'"

AGGRESSIVE TENDENCIES. Such actions as boasting, bluffing, temper tantrums, lying, stealing, and cheating are danger signals and should be investigated. Children who exhibit these tendencies are in need of help. Reading, as well as other learning, is likely to suffer because of social and emotional maladjustments. Peggy was a child who was referred to a reading clinic because of extreme maladjustment.

Peggy was referred by the juvenile court because of school failure. She had been arrested for stealing. The school record stated that she stole everything in sight, had no interest in her classroom work, and refused to cooperate. The mother said she could do nothing with the child.

Peggy was a pretty little nine-year-old girl who was definitely on the defensive. Her intelligence was above average, but she was not learning to read in accordance with her capacities. There was no apparent reason for stealing because she had as much as other children. The child was unable to explain her behavior.

The teacher was urged to develop creative story writing with the group. About three weeks later she brought in a story entitled, "The Paper Nut

Tree," written by Peggy. In the story Peggy pictured a little girl who was always ridiculed, was never believed, and was not accepted by the group. The child was praised for the story and asked to tell about it. She explained her own problem very well.

In a conference with her mother, the fact was brought out that Peggy's word was never accepted and that a younger sister was always asked if Peggy were telling the truth. The neighborhood children ridiculed her as a result, and her grandmother openly favored the younger child. Peggy had to steal to gain her share of attention. A program of parent education helped the child establish her rightful place in the home. She no longer needed to steal, and she was freed to learn to read.

Perhaps a classroom teacher feels she lacks time or preparation to make such studies. An observant teacher will soon find, however, that an awareness of social and emotional conflicts will enable her to recognize symptoms before they become serious problems. Teachers can help to a great extent in the sound social and emotional growth of their pupils.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL STATUS

The objectives and desirable goals of behavior which are basic to the social and emotional adjustment necessary for learning to read must be developed carefully and consistently. Affirmative answers to the following questions will help a teacher determine the level of maturity of her pupils.

Is he able to work and play in harmony with other children?

Is he able to work independently?

Does he approach new learning situations with confidence?

Is he a happy, cheerful child?

Is he well-adjusted in his school work?

Can he accept a certain amount of defeat and criticism?

Is he willing to share materials and to take turns in activities?

Is he able to listen attentively?

Does he feel a real need to learn to read?

CHAPTER 6 + STUDYING EDUCATIONAL GROWTH

Language

READING IS TALKING. It is a mode of communication in which a writer speaks through use of symbols. For this reason facility in use of oral language is closely related to success in reading. At any age or grade level a child must be able to use orally sentences that are comparable in difficulty to those he is asked to read, if he is to read with comprehension.

Some children enter first grade unable to speak in simple direct sentences. Some children in higher grades are unable to use the complex sentence structure and vocabulary of their textbooks. It is small wonder they have difficulty in learning to read with understanding. Control over oral language is a prerequisite for successful reading.

COMMON CAUSES OF INADEQUATE LANGUAGE GROWTH

There are several reasons why some children have inadequate language facility. A teacher can plan a more functional program for necessary development in oral language skills if she studies the children to learn the causes of their impoverished ability to express themselves. Some more frequently occurring causes which a teacher should investigate are given here.

MENTAL IMMATURITY. This may be responsible for a first-grade child's inability to speak in complete sentences. There is a natural maturation in language development. A baby begins to talk by using nouns in isolation. When he wants to say he sees a car, he expresses it in a single word, "car." At the age of three or four years a normal child will express himself in complete sentences. By the age of six he uses varied sentence structure and has command of more than two thousand words in his speaking vocabulary.

LACK OF EXPERIENCE.   This is another cause of language disability. One major cause of reading failure in the middle grades is a lack of experience necessary to understand concepts presented in reading material, particularly in content subjects.

In one fourth grade a teacher presented the pupils with a new reader she had chosen for them. It was a book with a series of stories about the experiences of two children who lived in a large city. In the first story, the children who lived in a large apartment building visited a big department store and had fun riding the escalators. In this group of fourth-grade children there was no child who had ever seen a large apartment building or a big department store, to say nothing of riding escalators. When the teacher explained that the escalator was a moving stairway, the pupils were completely lost. No one could imagine a stairway moving. Nor were there any pictures to help out. The lesson was a total failure. Yet this group of rural children with their rich experiences in country living could have profited greatly from a story of farm life. One member of the group expressed this feeling when he tossed aside the book disgustedly and grumbled, "Why don't we ever get stories about combines and threshing and interesting things?"

Reading without having the experiences necessary to understand the concepts becomes a mechanical recognition of symbols in which there can be no comprehension. If a child is unable to talk about the topic to be read, it is necessary to build the experiential background that will enable him to understand the concepts. In no case should he be asked to read about topics with which he has no language facility.

A MEAGER HOME BACKGROUND.   Such a backbround may also cause poor language facility. Some children have very little opportunity to express themselves at home. George was such a child.

George entered first grade with no kindergarten background. During conversation period the teacher showed the children a picture of a family working together in a garden. George enumerated with single words the people in the picture. He was unable to recognize grass, flowers, or trees. He could not speak in sentences. The teacher thought that George was

mentally immature and requested an intelligence test be given to him. Results showed he had average mental ability.

Investigation into the home background disclosed the fact that George had never seen a blade of grass, a tree, or a flower. He lived with his mother in a slum area of a large industrial city. His mother worked hard every day. She left him in a small, enclosed patch of cement that was called a front yard. For a small sum a neighbor gave him his lunch and as little care as possible. When his mother returned home at night she was too tired to talk to him. She gave him his supper and put him to bed. The first time he ever left his home was the day he entered school. He had no experiences which would enable him to participate in conversation.

With this information at hand, the teacher was able to plan a prereading program that would enable George to build up language facility. No formal reading was attempted until he was able to talk with understanding about things in the preprimer. When this was accomplished, he beame a successful reader.

FAULTY HEARING. This should not be overlooked as a possible cause of language disability. If a child has difficulty in hearing, there is likely to be a corresponding speech disability because of the limited hearing experiences which, in turn, limit his background for talking. The part that hearing plays in correct enunciation and pronunciation and its role in reading success have been discussed in a previous section.

A FOREIGN LANGUAGE BACKGROUND. A child from such a home frequently manifests inadequate language facility in English. If a child hears and speaks one language at home and a different one at school, he may become confused. He may have difficulty in identifying objects and word signs with the auditory and speech motor skills needed in English. He may know names of objects in one language but fail to recognize the names for them in another. This will lead to retardation until he masters an English vocabulary. Some children need to be taught to speak English before they attempt to learn to read it.

Albert was a little eight-year-old Greek boy who had such a problem.

Albert had been in this country six months and had failed in his

school work. On his first day in his new class, the teacher administered a group intelligence test. There was silence throughout the room. Suddenly there was an outburst of Greek from the corner of the room. When questioned, Albert's friend said that he interpreted everything the teacher said so that Albert could do what the teacher expected. Albert, himself, did not know the meaning of one word in English, even though he had been in the country and had attended school here for six months. When the interpreter was removed and Albert was given instruction in English, he soon learned to read.

Common sense would seem to indicate that in certain communities early instruction in reading should be carefully adjusted to children from foreign-speaking homes; it is less obvious that even English-speaking children are often immature in language development and need early ear and speech training.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING LANGUAGE STATUS

Because language facility is so important in reading success, an alert teacher will know the status of her children in this skill. Observation of language habits of children on the playground, in the lunchroom, and in classroom activities will yield profitable results. The following questions are helpful in determining the level of a child's language ability and his readiness for reading at his own level:

Does he have an adequate, meaningful vocabulary?

Is he able to speak in sentences comparable to those he will be required to read?

Does he participate in conversation?

Has he had experiences that will enable him to understand concepts presented in the reading material?

Does he express his ideas clearly?

If a child does not have the language facility needed to engage in formal reading successfully, a good teacher will not sit back and fold her hands. Rather she will plan a program of developmental activities which will stimulate growth in language facility. Such activities are presented in Chapter 10.

Listening

The ability to listen effectively is related directly to success in reading. It has been brought out in the discussion of language ability that reading is talking. An author is talking to a reader. A successful reader must therefore be able to hear what an author has to say. One major reason that children in early primary grades read in a choppy word-for-word manner is that they have failed to gain this concept of reading. They are unable to think how words would sound if the writer said them. As a result they do not read with understanding.

There are two important requisites for effective listening: (1) a pupil must be able to discriminate between sounds; (2) he must be able to listen for a purpose.

AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

Auditory acuity, or the ability to hear a sound, is a physical factor. Auditory discrimination, or the ability to hear likenesses and differences in sounds, is a skill that can be learned unless there is a serious hearing disability. For example, a group of middle-grade pupils listened to an airplane going over the school. Everyone could hear the plane, but, in addition, most of the boys in the group could identify it, even though they had not seen it. The boys had learned to hear likenesses and differences in the sounds of passing airplanes. They were using auditory discrimination. If a pupil is to succeed in learning to read, he must have the ability to discriminate among the sounds in the words that he reads.

Common causes of inadequate sound discrimination. Children are not always able to hear likenesses and differences in the sounds of words. Some of the reasons for this are discussed here.

PHYSICAL HEARING DISABILITY. This is a cause of poor sound discrimination. If a child cannot hear the sounds clearly, he cannot be expected to differentiate among them. The role of this disability

in reading has been discussed in Chapter 4, "Studying Physical Growth."

INFANTILE SPEECH. Another cause of lack of skill in hearing likenesses and differences in sounds is infantile speech. A beginner who still says "wain" for *rain* and makes similar confusions may do so because he never learned to perceive differences in sounds. Frances and Marie were sisters who had such a problem.

Frances and Marie, aged nine and seven, presumably had serious speech defects and were unable to read. But test results showed that they had superior intelligence and that there were no physical speech or hearing defects. In a conference with the mother, she brought out the fact that the older child had not begun to talk until she was past three years of age. The parents had been extremely worried, and they were so relieved when Frances finally began to express herself verbally that they made up a little language of their own. As Marie began to talk, she, too, used their little private language. Since the children had never learned to listen to likenesses and differences in the sounds of words in our language, they had trouble when they tried to begin to read in first grade. Failure resulted. A training program of auditory discrimination activities relieved the situation and the children began to read normally.

INADEQUATE EXPERIENCE IN LISTENING. Frequently difficulty in auditory discrimination arises if a student has not acquired a habit of careful listening. Many adults find themselves in embarrassing situations at times because of careless listening habits. A student teacher, criticized by her teacher because she had consistently spelled the word *pilot* as *piolet* on a kindergarten chart, remarked, "I just never listened carefully to the word before. I always thought it was *pi-o-let*."

It has been found that skill in this special ability aids children's progress in reading markedly. Ability can be developed through systematic instruction. Before a child enters school, he usually is able to distinguish a dog's bark and a cat's meow although he cannot always tell whether a bark is happy, angry, or frightened. Before he can succeed to any extent in reading, he must develop the ability to distinguish readily the pronunciations of words that he is to read; and later he must distinguish the sounds of parts of words.

A sequential program usually involves the following discrimination skills in the order given: gross likenesses and differences in word pronunciations, likenesses and differences in beginning sounds and in ending sounds, and likenesses and differences in medial parts of words.

Detection of likenesses and differences in ending sounds usually involves listening to rhyming words. This is an easy step from nursery rhymes. Recognition of likenesses and differences in beginning sounds usually occurs in the early primer period when, upon introduction of a new word such as *boat*, a pupil exclaims suddenly, "Our new word begins just like *ball*." Hearing likenesses and differences in medial parts of words is more difficult because it requires fine discrimination among vowel sounds, such as between *pin* and *pen*. Suggested activities for the development of each step are given in Chapter 10.

LISTENING FOR A PURPOSE

The ability to listen for a purpose is another major factor in effective listening. A child who lacks skill in oral listening has difficulty in reading for specific purposes and in learning to adapt his reading to the purpose at hand. He cannot read to get central thought, to get important details, to locate data, to draw inferences, or for any other specific purpose. This disability usually results in a pupil's failure to read content subjects successfully, especially in middle and later grades. Before he can read successfully for these specific purposes, he must learn to listen for them in spoken language. This aspect of the skill of listening has been badly neglected. In very few places in our curriculums has definite provision been made for its development. An alert teacher, however, finds many opportunities for the development of purposeful listening. She provides a program for the systematic development off effective listening for all purposes for which a child is to read. Such exercises are suggested in Chapter 10.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING LISTENING STATUS

It is important for a teacher to know the status of her pupils in this essential skill of effective listening. Informal observation and consideration of the following questions will be helpful.

Does a child discriminate between gross differences in words?

Can he identify rhyming words?

Does he hear likenesses and differences in beginning sounds of words?

Does he hear likenesses and differences in ending sounds of words; in medial sounds?

Does he listen attentively to stories?

Can he listen to a story or an article for a specific purpose?

Can he follow oral directions which are as difficult as those he is asked to read?

Those pupils who are deficient in any aspects of this specific ability must have adequate experience to enable them to succeed if they are to profit to the fullest extent from a reading program.

Observation

The skill of effective observation is so important to progress in reading that it is included in many prereading and diagnostic reading tests. The act of seeing is native, but seeing efficiently is a skill which a child may or may not have acquired before he comes to school as a student. Even if a child has normal vision from a physiological standpoint, he may have immature visual perception. There is no guarantee that he will notice details. Ability to see effectively is a skill which can be developed within the limits of a child's capacity by a systematic instructional program.

SKILLS NEEDED FOR EFFECTIVE OBSERVATION

Visual discrimination. Effective observation requires a pupil to have developed several specific abilities. Important among these is

visual discrimination, or the ability to see likenesses and differences among forms of words. When a child looks at a word, he sees a series of ink marks on a paper. Most of the ink marks are straight lines, circles, and parts of circles—geometric forms. To read he must be able to differentiate the geometric forms of which letters and words are made. Likewise, the ability to gain ideas from pictures and the ability to associate objects and words are important also.

Visual discrimination is basic to success in learning to read at every level. The more advanced word recognition skills are based upon the pupil's ability to see likenesses and differences in word forms. Skill in identification of root words, prefixes, and suffixes, noting syllabic divisions, and the use of diacritical marks and dictionary skills are dependent upon efficient observation. For this reason, training in visual discrimination must be a continuous program the prereading period through advanced levels of reading instruction. There are four levels of development in seeing likenesses and differences.

FIRST LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT.   The earliest level is that of distinguishing between concrete objects. Most children who enter school are able to discriminate between a cat and a dog, a book and a crayon.

SECOND LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT.   At this level there is discrimination of forms in pictures or semiconcrete objects, and the child differentiates between mother and father, father and son, puppy and kitten, and other objects in a picture. He may also make differentiations such as finding a squirrel in a row of kittens. Items are included in many reading readiness tests to determine a pupil's skill in this aspect of visual discrimination. Although most children are able to make such differentiations at the beginner's level, there are some who have not reached this level of maturity. David was such a child.

David was a curly-haired, alert-looking five-year-old, who participated in a reading readiness test administered to a small group of children. He was doing very well until he came to the section on visual discrimination. In this section the pupils were to draw a line through pairs of pictures

that were different and to do nothing with pairs of pictures that were alike. Directions were carefully given. The children began to play the game enthusiastically—all but David. David just sat. The examiner went over the directions carefully with David alone until she was sure he knew how to play the game. But David just sat and did nothing. When the test was completed, the examiner took David aside and tried again, but there was no response. David's reply to the question of why he did not play the game was, "I did. I like the game. It's fun." When the teacher asked why he did not draw a line through any of the pictures that were different, he answered, "There aren't any. They are all the same." David could see the pictures. There was nothing wrong physically with his vision, but he had not learned to notice details, to see likenesses and differences. Later tests brought out the fact that David could discern difference between concrete objects but had not reached a maturity level of discriminating between semiconcrete objects.
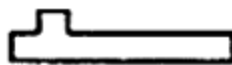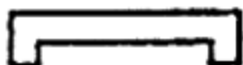
THIRD LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT. The ability to see likenesses and differences in semiabstract figures such as geometric forms requires a higher power of visual discrimination. This type of exercise appears in many readiness tests and in some commercial reading readiness workbooks. From a row of balls, squares, and other geometric forms, a child is asked to find an object just like the first object in a row. A more mature child will be able to see such likenesses and differences. It is an important step in a child's development between the level at which he sees likenesses and differences in rows of pictures and the highest level, in which he is asked to discriminate between words. Yet many teachers omit this step entirely. They assume that if a child is able to differentiate between pictures he will have the power to make discriminations among words. This is not true. Studies such as that made by the staff of the National College of Education[1] show the value of perceptual training with the use of geometric forms.

FOURTH LEVEL OF DEVELOPMENT. The highest level of differentiation occurs in the discrimination of word forms. The ability to make such visual discriminations requires maturity and training in noting details. Specific practice with use of word forms must be given. We

[1] Louise F. Davis, Vivienne Ilg, Martha K. Springer, and Doreen A. Hanck, "Perceptual Training of Young Children," *Monograph on Language Arts*, National College of Education, no. 56, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York, pp. 1 ff.

cannot assume that because, for example, a child sees and can pick out a house with no door from a row of houses with doors that his discriminatory powers are mature enough to note likenesses and differences in word forms. Actual word forms must be used for this purpose. It is not necessary for a child to be able to read these words at this level. The goal of instruction here should be to teach him how to look at a word to differentiate it from other words. It is unfortunate that this important skill is neglected or omitted entirely in many commercial reading readiness books.

Examination of observational habits of children shows that a child does not observe in systematic order from left to right naturally. This is a skill that must be taught. A young child sees a word as a picture or total form rather than a sequence of letters. If he is taught to note details carefully, he is soon able to discriminate between words. Many parents complain to a teacher that they cannot understand why their child is able to remember "hard words" like *umbrella* but unable to remember "easy words" such as *these* and *those*. If they were to examine the so-called hard words they would soon find these are words that have distinguishing characteristics in shape and are interesting in meaning, whereas the easy words have no special characteristics and lack meaning interest.

One of the first steps in the visual discrimination of words is the ability to note special characteristics of words. Differences in the configuration or the form of words should be noted. For example, *chair* and *penny* are the same length, but if a frame is drawn around each word their shapes are noticeably different. The general outline around the word *chair* looks like this ⊏⌐▭ while *penny* presents a picture that looks like this ▭▢ . A child glances at the general outline and knows the word—just as we recognize people by sight. Many times children will work out their own configuration clues from striking characteristics. Carl, for example, said he always knew the word *monkey* because the *k* in the middle of the word made a little chair for the monkey to sit on.

The length of a word should be noted. Differences in length of

words provide valuable discriminatory clues. For example, *soon* and *something* begin alike, but *soon* is short and *something* is long.

Another step in discrimination is the observation of differences in the appearance of words beginning with capital and small letters. At preprimer and primary levels, exercises in matching words written with small letters with those written with capital letters should be provided to afford a child experience in noting these details. Visual discrimination of word endings is also essential at beginning as well as at later levels. A child must be taught to distinguish inflectional endings. Many children read *run* for *runs, want* for *wanted*, or confuse endings because they have not been taught to observe them effectively.

More advanced levels of visual discrimination include the ability to observe prefixes, suffixes, and root words in word forms. Ability to note diacritical marks, accents, and syllable divisions results from a well-planned continuous program of visual discrimination.

A well-planned program of visual discrimination is carefully graduated in difficulty from the first general observation of the total form of a word to complete discrimination of dictionary markings. One very important factor in the construction of exercises to develop this skill is meaning. Words used for practice should be those which a child will meet in his reading. Interest is another important factor. Activities that are used should be purposeful and worthwhile to a child. If the activities are interesting and meaningful, there will be less danger that these exercises will become mere mechanical performances. Learnings will be permanent and functional because they are significant.

Gaining ideas from pictures. Another ability of effective observation that is essential for successful reading is the ability to gain ideas from pictures. The extent to which a child perceives the significant elements of a picture depends upon maturity, interest, meaningful experience, and habits of observation.

An immature child fails to see the relationships expressed in a picture. He sees isolated objects which he enumerates: "Dog, baby, kitten, lady, man, girl, ball." At a slightly higher level he may enu-

merate objects using complete sentences: "I see a dog; I see a baby; I see a kitten; I see a rake; I see Father." There is no relationship between the elements, however. A more mature child will not only identify the elements but relate them as well. He will build a story. For example, he may say, "Mother and Father are out in the yard. Mother is knitting. Father and Jack are cleaning up the yard. Nancy and Baby are playing with the kitten."

A very mature child is able not only to tell a story as it is actually pictured but also to draw inferences from actual observation of significant elements. One child's story from the picture above was told in this manner: "It is a warm Saturday in the fall. Father and Jack are cleaning up the yard so they can cook dinner outside. Mother is knitting a sweater for Baby. Nancy is taking care of Baby so they can get done faster." When the pupil was asked how he knew it was a warm Saturday in the fall, he replied that it is warm because they have on summer clothes, and it is fall because they are raking up the leaves, and it is Saturday because his father does not go to work on Saturday. This child had observed carefully the significant elements in the picture. To these observations he had added meaningful experience of his own to produce a related story.

It is important, therefore, for a teacher to determine her pupils' ability to gain ideas from pictures. If a pupil is at a level of maturity below that of drawing inferences from pictures or if he is at a stage of word or sentence enumeration, he should be guided carefully to a higher level in order that he can learn to make meaningful associations. To do this it is necessary to build up a pupil's background of experience and to teach him more careful habits of observation through interesting activities.

Associating objects with words. In addition to his ability to see likenesses and differences and to gain ideas from pictures, a pupil must be able to associate objects with words. The process of perception is not complete until meaning is associated with a symbol. Skills of visual discrimination must be developed through use of meaningful experiences. For this purpose many first-grade teachers

use labels, science corner exhibits, bulletin boards, and many other devices that utilize a child's previous experiences.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING STATUS IN OBSERVING

If there has not been a systematic instructional program in the development of these skills of visual discrimination, children will lack facility in analyzing details and noting significant differences among word forms, which may result later in very slow reading or in confusion of words such as *these, those, that, which, when, where.* These confusions end ultimately in loss of comprehension. A pupil fails to understand what he has read and loses interest in the reading process. It is important, therefore, for a teacher to evaluate each child in the skill of effective observation. The following questions will help a teacher to determine the status of a pupil.

Can the child see likenesses and differences in objects?

Can he identify objects in a picture?

Can he see likenesses and differences in abstract figures such as circles, squares, and triangles?

Does he notice differences in shapes of words?

Does he notice differences in lengths of words?

Does he see likenesses and differences in words beginning with capital letters and those beginning with small letters?

Does he see likenesses and differences in word endings?

Does he observe effectively middle parts of words?

Does he notice prefixes, suffixes, and root words in word form?

Is he able to discriminate among diacritical markings?

Does he associate objects with words?

Is he able to tell the whole story of a picture?

Can he draw inferences from significant elements in a picture?

Left-to-Right Directional Movement

Many young children have difficulty in learning to read because they are unaware that reading matter is to be observed from left

to right. Parents and teachers frequently assume that every child knows that in reading one begins at the left-hand side of a page and works toward the right. This is not true. In some cultures, such as the Chinese, reading does not progress from left to right. A habit of progression to the right is an unnatural one, and careful instruction and practice are required to develop it. A young child has been accustomed to looking at a picture from any point. He has not had to observe important elements systematically from left to right in order to interpret it. In reading, however, it is of utmost importance that a child move his eyes from left to right across a page. He must acquire the habit of attacking words and phrases by noting first the beginning of symbolization and they moving consistently toward the right.

Failure to instill careful habits of progression across a page and careful habits of observation of sequence of letters within words is the cause of many reading difficulties in later grades. Reversal errors, omission of words or parts of sentences, and slow reading are frequently caused by failure to establish a habit of looking at a succession of items from left to right.

SYMPTOMS OF FAULTY PERCEPTUAL HABITS

REVERSAL ERRORS. Confusing *on* for *no*, *saw* for *was*, and transposition errors such as *stop* for *spot* may be prevented by systematic guidance during the prereading period. Children frequently make errors because they attack a word from any point rather than at the beginning. If, during the development of visual discrimination at the prereading period and at the initial reading period when a child is taught to observe likenesses and differences in word forms, careful guidance is given in observation of these forms in a rightward direction there will be a noticeable decrease in reversals in later reading.

OMISSIONS. Single words and parts of sentences are frequently omitted as a result of poor perceptual habits. Unless a child is taught to observe systematically in sequential order, he attacks the line of print at any point, jumping from one part of a sentence to another.

This causes him to omit part of the sentences and to lose the thought of the material.

SLOW READING. Many times a pupil reads very slowly because he is attempting to regain the thought of a story. Reversing or omitting words or jumping around in a line of print interferes with comprehension. If a child has been taught to read with understanding, results are then not satisfying to him. He rereads material to find the thought with resultant loss of speed.

COMMON CAUSES OF FAULTY PERCEPTUAL HABITS

There are several reasons why pupils fail to use an orderly left-to-right progression. Several more frequently occurring causes which a teacher should investigate are given here.

LACK OF TRAINING. The most common cause is lack of training. A child has been looking at pictures and objects from any point. Then he is thrust suddenly into reading where it is of tremendous importance to move consistently from left to right.

INSUFFICIENT TRAINING. Another reason for failure is insufficient training. Teachers frequently inaugurate programs to foster proper directional movement but do not consider individual differences. Some children require much more practice than others in this important skill. Left-handed children, especially, require careful guidance. Several theories have been advanced concerning the tendency of a left-handed child to move from right to left both in reading and in writing. Dearborn[2] has explained it in terms of convenience. When a left-handed person writes from right to left, he clears a line of print just as a right-handed person does when he writes from left to right. In similar manner, Dearborn says, it is easier for a left-eyed person to look from right to left than from left to right. Recent studies seem to indicate that left-handedness and left-eyedness do not interfere markedly with normal reading progress. It is necessary, however, to watch those children carefully to see that they

[2] W. F. Dearborn, "Structural Factors Which Condition Special Disability in Reading," *Proceedings of the American Association for Mental Deficiency,* vol. 38, 1933, pp. 266–283.

receive sufficient guidance in left-to-right movement to ensure proper habits of attack. Because of this tendency to go in the wrong direction more practice is required in some cases.

TOO MANY UNFAMILIAR WORDS. Children sometimes develop wrong directional habits at higher levels. Teachers of second and third grades particularly are baffled by the sudden appearance of reversals and the confused attack of a line of print by children who had apparently established proper habits of left-to-right approach. This difficulty occurs when a pupil encounters too many unfamiliar words in his reading. He is forced to make many fixations on a word and to allow his eyes to travel back and forth in an effort to recognize the words.

Habits of perception of words must be definitely established. When a child first attempts to recognize a strange word he must be taught to attack it with a systematic left-to-right procedure; he must not be permitted to look first at any point in a hit-or-miss procedure. If the teacher has her pupils trace over a word projected on a blackboard in dotted line manuscript writing she can help them learn proper directional attack.

Activities and exercises to help pupils acquire and establish control of a habit of left-to-right progression across a page are presented in Chapter 10.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING DIRECTIONAL STATUS

Because the skill of working from left to right is so important to success in reading, a teacher will find it profitable to determine the status of her pupils in this respect. Consideration of the following questions and informal observation will be helpful.

Does a child know the meaning of left and right?

Can he identify left and right?

Has he established a habit of looking at a succession of objects from left to right?

Does he observe a series of pictures in rightward progression?

Do his eyes move across a line of print from left to right?

In attacking a word has he acquired a habit of noting first the beginning of a word and moving consistently to the right?

Muscular Coordination

Motor control seems to be a requisite factor in the ability to read successfully. According to Harris,[3] there does not seem to be any direct causal connection between awkwardness and poor reading. Yet the fact remains that many poor readers are immature in muscular control. Kindergarten teachers have been aware for years of the importance of muscular coordination in predicting success in reading. How often does a teacher of very young children remark, "John is not ready for first grade. He cannot hop or skip."

The ability of a child to control large muscles precedes his ability to control small muscles. No one expects a five-year-old to cut out tiny detailed pictures because he is not yet able to control his muscles to this extent. Many teachers, however, without a thought concerning muscular maturation and development, plunge a five-year-old into reading small symbols such as are found in preprimers. They expect a child to use small eye muscles successfully without any preliminary education. Such action frequently causes undue muscular strain resulting in nervous strain and reading failure. Kerr[4] states that visual consciousness or awareness is a matter of development which is far from complete when a child enters school because a child has not yet learned to coordinate the muscular activities of his eyes. The length of time required for such development depends upon maturation and education.

Since the ability of a child to control his muscular actions does appear to be directly related to success in reading, activities to develop this skill are included in prereading programs. Such activities range from those which involve control of large muscles, such as skipping, bouncing a ball, and rhythmic interpretations of music,

[3] A. J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability*, 4th ed., Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1961, pp. 217–218.

[4] Clare Kerr, "Visual Maturity at the First Grade Level," *Claremont College Reading Conference*, 11th Yearbook, Claremont, Calif., 1946, pp. 78–79.

to those which involve coordination of eye and hand muscles, such as cutting, coloring within lines, and tracing dotted lines. Tracing activities frequently involve the use of words. Through such exercises a child not only is aided in control of eye and hand muscles but, with proper guidance, is taught the proper habit of visualizing words from left to right.

Suggested activities that may be used to help children learn to coordinate both large and small muscles will be found in Chapter 10. The type of activities selected will depend upon children's needs. It is important, therefore, that a teacher determine the status of children in the skill of muscular coordination. Consideration of the following questions will be helpful.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING STATUS IN MUSCULAR COORDINATION

Can the child pace steps? That is, does he go up and down stairs placing one foot in front of the other, or does he go one step at a time?

Can he walk and run smoothly?

Can he use free movements, such as skipping, hopping, tiptoeing?

Can he express himself in rhythmic activities?

Can he coordinate eye and hand movements in such activities as bouncing a ball?

Can he handle his wraps easily?

Can he manipulate scissors with one hand?

Can he coordinate eye and hand muscles in cutting, coloring, and painting?

Can he trace dotted lines with his fingers, crayon, and pencil?

Can he trace dotted-line manuscript with crayon or pencil?

Ability to Follow Directions

The ability to follow directions plays an important part in learning to read successfully. Many directions are given in reading in-

struction at all levels. Adults as well as children must know how to follow oral and written directions if they are to engage successfully in many activities. A homemaker reads how to operate the latest labor-saving device for the kitchen; a driver of an automobile reads how to operate his car with the greatest degree of efficiency; and a boy reads how to build a model airplane. The importance of this skill in learning to read is evidenced by the fact that it is included in many commercial reading readiness tests.

SKILLS NEEDED FOR FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS

Skill in following directions includes two major abilities: the ability to remember items in sequence and ability to follow oral directions. To be successful a pupil must be able to attend to the directions given; he must be able to sense a sequence; and he must be able to complete it.

If a pupil has difficulty in following oral directions it may be caused by failure to relate events in order sequentially. In this case he is very likely to confuse the order of events or to omit essential happenings. A teacher should note whether a pupil attended carefully to directions as they were given. She should examine her directions and note if there were too many and whether the step-by-step sequence was understood or was too complicated.

A young child who is beginning to learn to read must be capable of remembering things in order and of following three or four simple directions. The reading process itself requires the ability to execute several sequential items, namely, holding a book, recognizing and interpreting symbols from left to right across a line of print, returning to a new line, progressing from the top to the bottom of a page, and turning a page. A child who is unable to do this should be given guidance and encouragement in order to make steady progress in following directions of increasing number and complexity. Directions for activities in which children wish to participate will afford the best practice for building increased efficiency in this skill.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR DETERMINING STATUS IN FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS

Consideration of the following items will provide valuable information on the status of each child.

Does a child listen purposefully when directions are given?

Is he able to remember three or four items in sequence?

Does he know how to begin?

Does he carry out each step in sequential order?

Does he have motor coordination necessary to complete work undertaken?

Does he complete a task successfully?

CHAPTER 7 ✦ EVALUATING FACTORS FOR SUCCESS IN READING

THE MATTER of determining the status of a child and measuring the factors necessary for success in reading, whether it is at a beginning level or at a more advanced level, is a problem of importance to teachers. The success that children will meet in reading activities depends to a great extent upon a teacher's ability to appraise their strengths and weaknesses.

It has been observed that many factors enter into success in reading. Since there is no one standardized test which will give information about all these factors, it is advisable for a teacher to use a combination of methods. Four main methods are generally used: (1) appraisal through the use of a standardized reading readiness test for pupils at beginning reading levels; (2) appraisal through the use of tests of auditory comprehension at more advanced levels; (3) appraisal through the use of an informal inventory, and teacher observation.

Standardized Reading Readiness Tests

Standardized reading readiness tests are designed to measure several factors which are requisite for success in reading. They differ from intelligence tests which attempt to measure general mental ability. Although readiness tests do measure some aspects of mental functioning, they stress those phases which are most closely related to success in reading.

Many readiness tests are made up of several subtests. Through a study of a child's behavior on individual subtests a teacher can discover a child's strengths and weaknesses. In this way a test may be used as a diagnostic instrument for later success in reading. It is necessary, therefore, for a teacher to acquaint herself with the available tests.

Some widely used reading readiness tests are described here. Additional tests are described in *The Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Oscar K. Buros.[1]

The Gates Reading Readiness Tests by A. I. Gates (revised edition, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York) consist of four major group tests and a fifth test which is optional and must be given individually. The four major tests are picture directions, word matching, word-card matching, and rhyming. The fifth test is reading letters and numbers. Scores are translated into percentile scores and prediction of success in learning to read.

The American School Readiness Test by Young, Pratt, and Whitmer (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.) is a group test. It measures vocabulary, discrimination of letter forms and letter combinations, discrimination of words by selection and matching, recognition of geometric forms, following directions, and memory of geometric forms. Scores are translated into predicted reading grades.

The Metropolitan Readiness Tests by G. H. Hildreth and W. L. Griffiths (Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York) is a group test that should be given in several sittings. It consists of six tests: similarities, copying, vocabulary, sentences, numbers, and general information. The seventh part, the drawing of a man, is optional. Scores are translated into point scores and percentile ranking.

The Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test by J. Murray Lee and W. W. Clark (revised edition, California Test Bureau, Los Angeles) is a group test. It consists of matching letter symbols, understanding concepts, vocabulary, following directions, and identifying letters and words. Scores are translated into percentile ranking and grade placement equivalents.

The Monroe Reading Aptitude Tests by Marion Monroe (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston) consist of a number of subjects. They are designed to measure visual and auditory discrimination, motor

[1] Oscar K. Buros, *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, The Gryphon Press, Highland Park, N.J., 1959.

coordination, articulation, and language ability. It is partially a group test and partially individual. Scores are translated into point scores and percentile rankings. This test is especially good for measuring factors essential to reading success when working with severe disability cases in the age group of six to nine years.

The Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test by M. J. Van Wagenen (Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pa.) consists of several subtests. They are designed to measure range of information, perception of relationships, vocabulary, visual discrimination, memory span, and word learning. Raw scores are converted into standard C scores. These are translated into ratings of superior, good, average, mediocre, and poor. It is an individual test.

Auditory Comprehension Measures

Reading readiness tests are limited largely to appraisal of factors at a beginning reading level. Frequently it is desirable for a teacher to determine a pupil's capacity to read at a higher level. Group intelligence tests are unsatisfactory in many cases because of the reading factor involved. If a pupil has difficulty in reading and is unable to read the questions, his true score is not reported. Although individual intelligence tests such as the Terman Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scale or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (The Psychological Corporation) are valuable, many classroom teachers are not equipped to administer and interpret such a test, nor do they have time for individual administration of the tests. A procedure that has proved very valuable in the determination of a child's capacity is that of estimating hearing comprehension. John Haberland,[2] in a study in which he made a comparison of listening tests with standardized tests, found that there was a marked relationship between intelligence measures and listening ability. This

[2] John Haberland, "A Comparison of Listening Tests with Standardized Tests," *Journal of Educational Research*, April, 1959.

ability may be appraised informally or though the use of a standardized test.

Informal appraisal of a pupil's auditory comprehension level is done through observation and evaluation of his ability to understand and participate in oral discussions. The highest level at which a pupil can understand and discuss intelligently stories or articles which are read to him is his reading capacity level. In other words, a pupil has the mental ability to read at a level at which he can understand and participate in oral discussions. This assumption is based on the fact that the same degree of intelligence is required to understand a spoken word or concept as is needed to understand the same word or concept in written form. The inability of a child to understand a written concept at this level is caused by difficulties with symbolization rather than lack of mental ability.

If standardized auditory comprehension tests are used, the first step is to select a reading test which measures level of comprehension in two forms, one to be administered according to directions, the other to be read to the pupil. A child who has no difficulty in reading will do as well or better on a test which he reads to himself, while a child with a reading disability will usually do much better when a test is read to him.

The Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Test, by D. D. Durrell and Helen Sullivan, published by the World Book Company, has proved very successful in formally estimating pupils' capacity to read. This group test appraises hearing comprehension by measuring pupils' abilities to understand words and paragraphs. Since it contains no reading it can be given successfully to pupils who have reading difficulties. Scores are translated into age and grade norms. It is a test that gives a teacher a measure of reading expectancy.

Informal Inventories

Teacher judgment also should play an important role in appraising the factors necessary for success in reading at all levels. It is

best whenever possible to supplement standardized test results with subjective findings. At no time should results of formal tests be used in determination of a pupil's status without consideration of informal systematic observations made by a classroom teacher. This means that a teacher needs to become proficient in appraising pupil growth. She needs to be able to interpret a child's behavior in terms of growth patterns. Items listed on the informal inventory which follows will serve as a guide to aid in observation of important factors.

Since the results of a comprehensive survey of each child's abilities should be made accessible, a suggestive appraisal form is given here. With it a teacher can determine at a glance the status of each pupil. Entries should be made throughout the year as changes of behavior are noted. Since a reading program should be initiated at each child's level of ability and then developed at a rate commensurate with each child's ability to learn, such a chart will provide much needed information.

A READING RECORD FORM

Informal Inventory

Name   **Sex**

Date of birth   day   month   year   Date checked

Parent's name   Date rechecked

Status of home

Number in family   Ordinal position of child

Characteristic	Immature	Average	Mature	Remarks

Mental
   Is he alert?
   Is he curious?
   Can he sustain attention?				

Physical
 Vision:
   Does he have visual acuity?
   Does he have muscular control?
   Does he have coordination?
   Does he focus clearly?
   Is he free from difficulties such as frowning, squinting?
   Is he free from evidence of eye strain, as sties, red lids, watery eyes?
   Can he discriminate colors?				

Hearing:
   Does he hear well?
   Does he hear vowel sounds?
   Does he hear consonant sounds?
   Does he enunciate clearly?				

A READING RECORD FORM (*Continued*)

Characteristic	Immature	Average	Mature	Remarks
Speech:				
Can he articulate clearly?				
Does he have a clear pattern of pronunciation?				
Is he free from difficulties such as stuttering, lisping, indistinct speech?				
Is he free from vocal difficulties such as monotonous and high-pitched voice?				
General health:				
Is he regular in attendance?				
Does he have a positive attitude toward life?				
Does he participate in work and play activities?				
Does he complete given tasks without undue fatigue?				
Is he free from extreme nervousness or lethargy?				
Social and emotional				
Does the child feel secure?				
Does he have a sense of responsibility?				
Does he have a wholesome set of moral and spiritual values?				
Does he adjust well at home and at school?				
Can he concentrate?				
Does he accept authority?				
Is he free from evidences of infantile behavior?				
Does he feel adequate?				
Is he free from withdrawal tendencies as daydreaming, extreme timidity?				

Abilities	Immature	Average	Mature	Remarks
Is he free from aggressive tendencies, as boasting, lying, stealing, cheating?				
Language				
Does he have an adequate, meaningful vocabulary?				
Does he speak in sentences commensurate in difficulty to those he reads?				
Does he participate in conversation?				
Does he have adequate experiential background?				
Does he express his ideas clearly?				
Listening				
Can he discriminate among gross differences in words?				
Can he hear likenesses and differences in word beginnings?				
Can he identify rhyming words?				
Can he hear likenesses and differences in word endings; in medial parts of words?				
Can he listen to a story or to an article for a specific purpose?				
Observation				
Can he see likenesses and differences in objects?				
Can he identify objects in a picture?				

A READING RECORD FORM (*Continued*)

Abilities	Immature	Average	Mature	Remarks
Can he see likenesses and differences in abstract figures, geometrical forms?				
Does he notice differences in shapes of words?				
Does he notice differences in beginning, medial, and final parts of words?				
Does he associate objects with words?				
Can he draw inferences from significant elements in pictures?				
Does he observe word parts, as prefixes, suffixes, and root words? (advanced level)				
Is he able to discriminate and interpret diacritical markings, accents, and phonetic spelling (advanced level)?				
Left-to-right movement				
Can he identify left and right?				
Does he observe a series of pictures in left-to-right progression?				
Do his eyes move from left to right across a line of print?				
Does he attack a strange word from the left and move consistently toward the right?				
Is he free from reversal tendencies?				
Muscular coordination				
Does he have control of his large muscles, as in skipping, hopping, running?				

Abilities	Immature	Average	Mature	Remarks
Does he have control of small muscles, such as those used for cutting and coloring?				
Can he coordinate hand and eye muscles?				
Can he trace dotted-line manuscript?				
Following directions				
Does he listen purposefully to oral directions?				
Is he able to remember items in sequence?				
Does he carry out each step in sequential order?				
Does he complete a task successfully?				

A Summary Statement

This chapter has dealt with ways in which a teacher may study her pupils to determine their status and measure the factors necessary for success in reading at all levels. The importance of these factors in learning to read successfully has been pointed out. The importance and value of mental, physical, social and emotional, and educational factors have been discussed. Ways by which each of these factors may be checked in a classroom have been suggested. In the discussion of the educational factors necessary for success in reading, consideration has been given to the development of language facility, effective listening, effective observation, left-to-right directional movements, muscular coordination, and ability to follow directions.

Methods of appraising these factors through the use of standardized reading readiness tests, auditory comprehension tests, and systematic observations by a teacher have been presented.

The following part deals with specific classroom procedures and techniques for the development of each factor necessary for success in reading.

A teacher guides physical, social, emotional, and educational growth of children

EVERY means should be taken to give all children effective guidance in areas which contribute to success in reading. These areas have been discussed in Part Two. If a good developmental program is set up and carried out, there will be fewer reading failures. It is of the utmost importance that each child have a specific type of work to help him along the lines in which he needs to progress and that it give him a feeling of success so essential in learning to read.

The first step in planning a program conducive to reading growth is to determine the present needs of pupils with respect to the factors essential to reading success. Ways by which careful determination of the status of each child may be made have been presented in the preceding section.

Part Three offers procedures and techniques that may be used to develop certain facets of reading growth.

CHAPTER 8 + GUIDING PHYSICAL GROWTH

A TEACHER may say she has no control over the physical development of a child. She cannot justify that statement, however, after a careful consideration of the factors that are involved in guiding growth in this area. Some helpful suggestions for gathering data and some experiences that may be used to build better physical habits are given here.

Visual Environment in a Classroom

A teacher cannot correct poor vision but she can be on the alert to detect it in a child and see that a classroom is set up to prevent visual difficulties.

A child's vision may be checked informally by "See and Do" method.

Have several sets of cards. Each set should include three cards: (1) 5 by 8 inches; (2) 2½ by 4 inches; (3) 1¼ by 2 inches. Mount each small card on a cardboard 8½ by 11 inches. On the cards have stick figure people in action. Each action should be different. Send a child to the back of the room. Then stand card 1 on a blackboard ledge. Have a child come up one step at a time. When he can see what he is to do, he carries out the action. Mark on the floor with chalk where the first child responded. Place a second card on the ledge. Mark where he can see that one. Continue with a third card.

After testing several children you can detect a child who is having trouble seeing. A child who deviates markedly from the distance at which the cards can be seen should consult a good eye specialist.

Proper lighting in a classroom is of utmost importance in the prevention of visual difficulties. Here are some suggestions for better lighting conditions:

1. Have the ceiling painted a dull white and the walls painted soft pastel shades to prevent glare.

Card 1	Card 2	Card 3
5 x 8 inches	2½ x 4 inches	1¼ x 2 inches
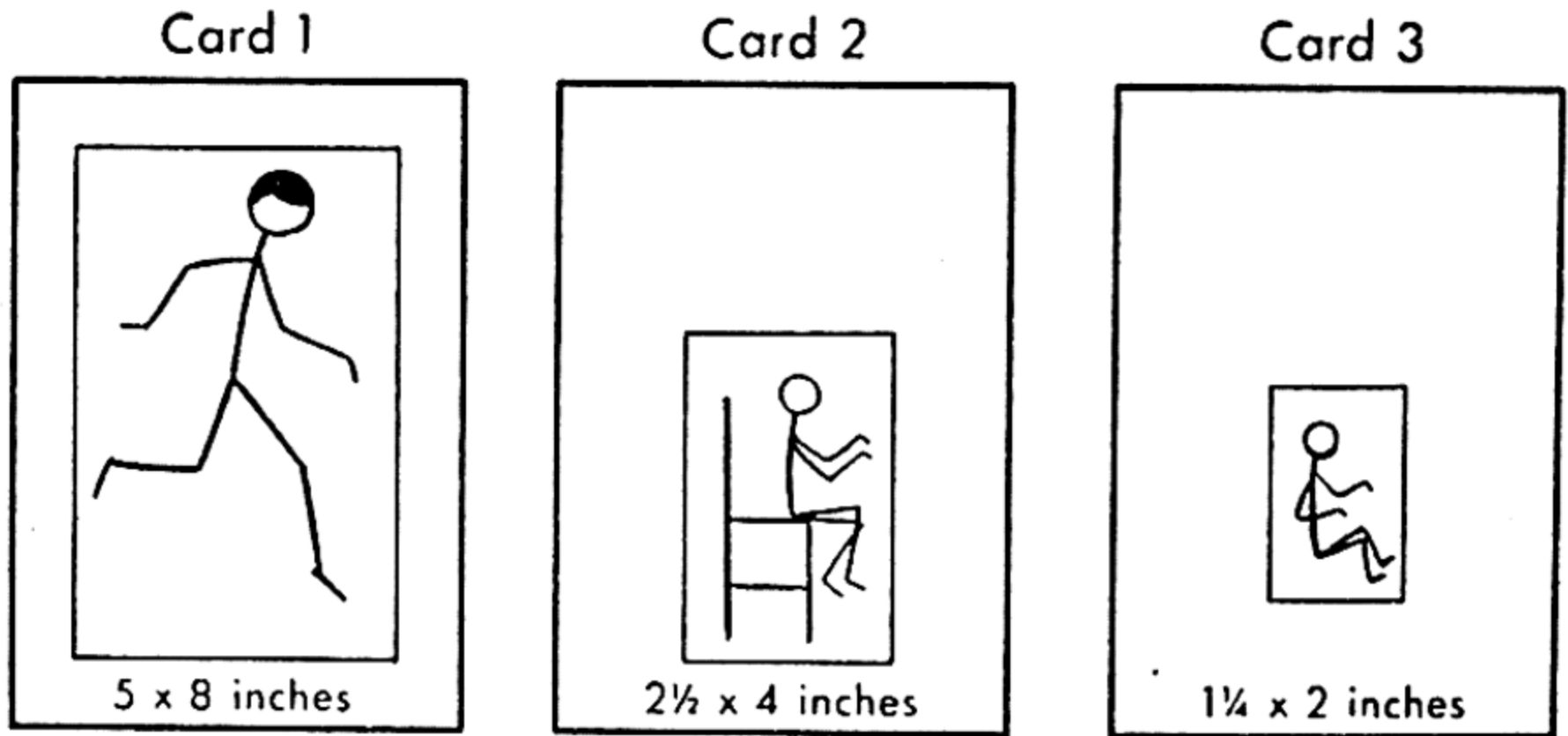
"See and Do" test cards

2. Have clean windows. It has been estimated that 40 percent of light is lost through dirty windows.
3. Cover glass cupboard doors with pictures to prevent glare.
4. Use light-colored shades that pull from top and bottom, if possible.
5. Arrange pupils' seats at a slight angle so that light comes over the left shoulder of a right-handed child and over the right shoulder of a left-handed child.
6. Use paper shades to pull down over any chalkboards that are not used.
7. Have the health department or electric company test the light in different parts of the room with a meter to see if there is proper light throughout the classroom.

General Health

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP GOOD EATING HABITS

A child who eats well has a stronger physical system. It is important, therefore, to develop an appreciation for healthful foods and to arouse a desire to eat properly for good health. A few activities are suggested here.

MAKING MENUS. "A Good Breakfast" is a game that children enjoy. Have the children find, mount on heavy paper, and cut out

pictures of foods that are good for breakfast. Place them on a tray. Children volunteer to get breakfast.

When a child decides what fruit he will serve, he selects a picture and thumbtacks it onto a bulletin board. He then selects cereal, toast, and a beverage to complete his breakfast and arranges them with the fruit on the bulletin board. Another child prepares another breakfast. The game continues until four or five breakfasts have been prepared, and the relative values of each breakfast are discussed. The children should be encouraged to tell in what ways these breakfasts compare with those they eat, and suggestions should be made of ways to improve their breakfast diets. This game may be varied for a study of lunches and dinners.

FOOD RIDDLES. Healthful-food riddles help children to become acquainted with good foods, besides teaching them to listen for the central thought.

A child who is "It" makes up a riddle, such as,
I am red.
I grow under the ground.
I have a green top.
What am I? (red beet)
The child who first guesses the riddle makes up a riddle about another healthful food.

A FOOD PARTY. Valuable experiences in eating good foods, which may also develop an interest in reading, may be had from participating in "A Healthful Food Party."

Plan a party with children. Encourage them to bring milk, carrot sticks, celery, or other raw vegetables, and fruit, instead of candy, peanuts, and pop. Encourage them to eat slowly and to be polite. Later help children make an experience chart about "Our Party."

A FOOD CHART. Children of all grades profit from making a wall chart of the seven basic foods. Information may be had from the Council on Foods and Nutrition of the American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois.

HEALTH CHARTS. Make height and weight charts to stimulate interest in healthful activities. Record each child's height and weight

four times a year—September, December, February, and May. Report to parents all children whose growth seems questionable. Remember gains will be affected by rest as well as diet.

ACTIVITIES TO ENCOURAGE CLEANLINESS AND GROOMING

Cleanliness and good grooming habits are conducive to physical readiness. The child should learn to take care of himself as soon as he is mature enough to handle the necessary equipment. A box of cleansing tissue placed where he can use it, a mirror at his level, and a supply of soap and paper towels will help him to build desirable habits.

NATURE STUDY.   Consciousness of the value of cleanliness may be gained through a study of animals such as the raccoon, cow, and cat.

HEALTH SONGS.   Songs may be used advantageously. Songs such as "Before School" from *The Music Hour in Kindergarten and First Grade* by McConathy, Osbourne, et al., published by Silver Burdett Company, Morristown, N.J., are helpful with little children.

MEANS OF FOSTERING GOOD POSTURE

Good posture helps children to develop strong bodies and physical readiness. Teachers can do much toward the development of good posture by taking care that the children's seats are adjusted properly. An uncomfortable seat causes physical discomforts which result in learning difficulties. A seat that is adjusted properly allows the child's feet to be flat on the floor; the small of his back should fit the curve of the seat, and there should be the space of two fingers between his knee and the desk. He should be able to sit up and write without bending forward.

PLAY ACTIVITIES TO BUILD PHYSICAL WELL-BEING

Happy healthful play is important in building physical readiness. A planned playground period is essential. Some helpful suggestions for a successful play period are given here.

1. Plan games with children. Use games that will keep all of the children busy and interested to prevent discipline problems.

2. Teach rules before a game is started.
3. Play each game for a period of time in accordance with the maturity of a group. Little children attend better if activities are changed every 5 to 8 minutes.
4. Have a quiet game follow an active one.
5. Have children dress in accordance with the weather and the activity.
6. Prevent injuries by not using trees and walls for goals.

Safety

SAFETY RULES

Prevention of accidents is necessary if pupils are to maintain physical health. Children should be taught common safety rules such as the following:

1. Do not play in a street or road.
2. Stop and look both ways before crossing a street or road.
3. When walking, face the traffic on the left side of a roadway.
4. When riding a bicycle, obey traffic rules.
5. Obey instructions of the school safety patrol.
6. Do not talk to strangers.
7. Do not get into an automobile driven by a stranger, or allow a playmate to do so.
8. Do not touch a wire hanging from a pole.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SAFETY CONSCIOUSNESS

An alert teacher will find many activities that can be used to develop safety consciousness among children and at the same time provide a readiness for reading.

A "SAFETY GAME." This is enjoyed by primary children. It affords opportunities for learning to follow directions as well as for broadening children's knowledge of safety.

A traffic light may be made by cutting big circles of red, green, and yellow construction paper. Children should take turns in being school patrolman. After the patrolman has been selected, divide the children into two groups. Let one group be school children and let the other group be cars. The patrolman should use circles to indicate GO, STOP,

CAUTION. Children and cars should carry out the patrolman's signals. Fun and reality can be added if one or two scooters or velocipedes are available for use in the line of cars.

SAFETY CHARTS.   Charts made with pictures of policemen or patrol boys directing traffic afford opportunities for language development at a beginning reading level. Short stories, such as

> The policeman helps us to cross the street.
> We obey him.
> He is our friend.

may be dictated by the children and written under a picture made by the teacher. The finished chart is read by the children and teacher together.

SAFETY SONGS AND DRAMATIZATIONS.   Songs and dramatizations may be used at all levels. Older children enjoy writing plays and composing songs. These activities afford excellent language and reading opportunities. A *Safety Song Book* by H. O. Rounds, distributed by the Automobile Club of Michigan in Detroit, contains many interesting safety songs.

CHAPTER 9 ✦ GUIDING SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL GROWTH

THE INFLUENCE of social and emotional adjustments on a child's success in learning to read has already been pointed out. There must be social and emotional development to ensure progress. This adjustment is necessary for growth in satisfying work habits and for desirable attitudes toward the learning process. When a child shows an interest in books, when he expresses a desire to read, when he meets the criteria set up in Chapter 5, then his chances for success in learning to read are increased greatly. If a child lacks this interest and adjustment at any grade level, it will be necessary to have specific activities which will lead to social and emotional preparation. Participation in these activities should be based upon needs of pupils.

ACTIVITIES FOR SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL GROWTH

FAMILY BULLETIN BOARD. A feeling of security and belonging must be built in a child who has not had adequate preparation for entering school. When he feels that he is a part of a group, he will have a desire to participate in the classroom activities. This can be accomplished by connecting the home with the school. One such activity is described here.

Have children bring to school snapshots of their families or have them draw pictures of people to represent members of the family. Let each pupil tell the class about his picture. After each child has told a story about his picture, write a label for it and place it under the picture on the bulletin board. Later, as each child identifies his picture on the bulletin board, tell him what the label says and have him "read" it to the other children in the group.

PICTURE READING. Unfortunate home conditions and undesirable attitudes toward school have been indicated as causal factors in social and emotional maladjustment. Before progress can be made in the development of better attitudes, the teacher must understand the existing conditions. Children who are unable to express their prob-

lems as such will frequently interpret a picture in a manner that explains a situation.

Choose pictures of children participating in home and school activities and encourage the children to tell a story that they see in the picture. If a pupil feels that a child in the picture does not enjoy the activities, find out why he feels that way. A dislike for home or school is symptomatic. When a cause is determined, opportunities can be provided to relieve the situation.

For example, a pupil who states that the children in a picture do not like to read is very likely to give the cause of his own dislike for reading. Sometimes this attitude may be overcome by giving him opportunities to enjoy stories that are read to him.

RESPONSIBILITY CHARTS. Emotional immaturity is frequently caused by failure to build within a child a sense of responsibility. A child should learn to work independently of a teacher and be responsible for his own behavior. Pupils' interests may be aroused and maintained through a series of responsibility charts.

Attractive pictures which are related to a particular subject are placed at the top of a chart to make it more interesting. This also enables a beginning child to understand what the words on a chart say. A slot is cut through the bottom of each chart. This enables each child to know his responsibility for a week. It helps a young child to know what his name looks like in print and to recognize it. After a short period beginners will know their names at sight, and will begin to appreciate to a greater extent the purpose of reading.

Responsibilities should be shared by all children in a classroom. A teacher should provide materials such as paste, scraps of construction paper, drawing paper, paints, brushes, pictures, books, beads, and puzzles. These materials should be kept in convenient places where children can have easy access to them when their directed work is finished. Every pupil should be held responsible for putting materials back in place when he is through with them.

BIRTHDAY PARTIES. Ability to cooperate with other children in work and in play activities is essential for social and emotional

Pass milk	Pass crackers	Pass pencils
Name	Name	Name
Water plants	Feed turtle	Put away books
Name	Name	Name

Responsibility charts

maturity. A birthday party provides a splendid opportunity for this development.

At the first of each month present a calendar and have the children note the birthdays for that month. When a child's birthday arrives, he chooses as many children as he is years old to come to the front of the room. Each child chosen makes a birthday wish for him. "Happy Birthday" is sung by the whole group. If there are refreshments, the birthday child should choose helpers to serve. During the whole day, the birthday child should have the privilege of selecting pupils to be first in line for lunch, game leader, and for other special honors. In this way a birthday child enjoys his own importance in the group and at the same time learns to share with others.

A TOY PET STORE. Group cooperation and responsibility to others may be fostered through the establishment of a toy pet store. Let the children plan and build such a store. Orange crates may be used for cages. One section should be for dogs, one for kittens. Other sections should be built for each group of animals children

want to have in their shop. Labels should be made for each section. Animals may be cut from paper or modeled from clay, or stuffed animals may be used. Each child should be given an opportunity to be storekeeper. He should be responsible to the group and make a report to them of the activity of the store for the day he is in charge.

LETTERS. Writing letters to children is another way to build emotional security as well as a need to learn to read. It not only makes pupils conscious of being considerate to others but also serves as an introduction to one form of social etiquette. It helps them to express themselves in a more clear-cut and concise manner. It aids in recalling sequence of events, for during the composition of a letter pupils relate various activities and events that have happened over a period of time. With very young children a successful way of handling this is to write the letters on a chalkboard so that the children can see how they are written, how the words are written, and that in reading you go from left to right on a page. When children are able, it is nice to have then sign their names on the back of a letter after the teacher has written it on a piece of paper. Every child in the room will be able to contribute. Letter writing can continue throughout the year along with other types of reading activities.

NEWSPAPER. A classroom newspaper is another activity which will lead to arousal of interest and curiosity in reading. It may be daily or weekly. About fifteen minutes of class time is utilized in this activity, and the entire group participates. Any child may contribute by telling something of interest that has happened. It may be that Daddy is in Europe or that Susie has some new kittens. Children learn to express themselves in short simple sentences. The teacher writes the story on a chalkboard. At early reading levels, the children then read the newspaper together. Frequently the boy or girl who has shown no interest at all in reading will now consider it in a new light and really want to read something that tells about himself.

LABELS. Labels on objects around a room and charts that are

functional help to arouse a young child's curiosity and also aid in the development of interest. In addition, they make a child conscious of a need for reading.

LIBRARY CORNER. An attractive library corner in which there are lots of books that are accessible to children will stimulate interest. Books should be selected carefully for the purpose. Clothbound books may be included, and if a teacher does not have much money to spend for this purpose, she may include ten-cent-store books, many of which are quite attractive. If she selects stories carefully, she will be able to build a delightful library corner.

Children can learn many things from these books. They should be taught how to handle them, for books are fragile and their proper handling is prerequisite to reading. Pictures in books give the children additional experiences and arouse curiosity as to what the printed symbols mean.

Arrangement of a library corner should be such that it will lure the children to it. A few bookshelves or an unpainted bookcase, a small table or two, and a few little chairs can be arranged very attractively. If a teacher does not have furniture, needs may be brought up in a class discussion. Frequently parents have at home some small furniture that is no longer used, and they are glad to donate it for such purposes. It may be redecorated with the aid of the children. The children can take turns being librarian, and any child should be permitted to go to the library corner to look at the books during his free time.

A TEACHER'S CODE

Many teachers have found the following suggestions profitable in helping them build social and emotional security among their pupils.

1. Have patience.
2. Talk with a child and make an effort to win his confidence.
3. Discover any causes of maladjustments and plan action to remedy them.
4. Have standards that can be met successfully by pupils.

5. Help each child to cultivate his aptitudes to prevent any feelings of inadequacy.
6. Prepare pupils for new experiences to eliminate fear and failure.
7. Avoid needless restraint.
8. Curb taunts, reprimands, and intimidations.
9. Encourage group cooperation.
10. Give praise when it is deserved.
11. Provide motivation.
12. Do not expect to achieve emotional and social adjustment quickly. Maladjustments have usually been built up gradually. It may require a long period of time rehabilitate a pupil.

CHAPTER 10 ✦ GUIDING EDUCATIONAL GROWTH

Effective Language

ADEQUATE LANGUAGE FACILITY embodies three major factors: (1) ability to produce sounds correctly; (2) ability to speak in sentences comparable in difficulty and complexity to those that are read; (3) the ability to participate in conversation. The relationship of these factors to success in reading and the determining of weaknesses in language skills have been discussed in previous sections. Suggestions for developing better language facility are presented here.

Since an effective natural approach to a child is made through the medium of play, many of the exercises presented here are in the form of games. Strong motivation is assured if the necessary training is embodied in interesting games and exercises. To be functional, these activities must be interesting and must require maximum participation on the part of children. In addition to the games and exercises presented here, an alert teacher will find many more that she can adapt to the needs of her pupils.

ABILITY TO PRODUCE SOUNDS CORRECTLY

A study of results obtained on the speech check sheet suggested on page 35 affords a starting point for instructional work in the production of correct speech sounds. The check sheet should be analyzed to determine the sounds which are in need of development and the causes of any speech inadequacies. With this information at hand a teacher may plan her program. A first step in developing or correcting speech sounds is the identification of the correct sound. Teaching the production of a correct sound is accomplished through use of language activities since most children learn to make the sounds of our language through imitation. If a child does expe-

rience difficulty in making particular sounds it may be necessary for a teacher to demonstrate the correct use of the organs of speech. A simple explanation of the formation of the sounds of our language, together with sentences and jingles using these sounds, may be found in

L. Abney and D. Miniace, *This Way to Better Speech*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York.

More extensive information concerning the recognition and correction of speech errors may be obtained by consulting professional books on speech correction, such as

National Association of Teachers of Speech, *Guides to Speech Training in the Elementary School*, Expression Company, Magnolia, Mass.

Charles Van Riper, *Speech Correction: Principles and Methods*, 3rd ed., Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1947.

Other very helpful books for classroom teachers include the following:

Pauline Baker, *Primer of Sounds—A Manual for Teachers*, Expression Company, Magnolia, Mass., 1942. This book contains exercises for correcting speech faults.

Mabel Ogilvie, *Speech in the Elementary School*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1954.

Mildred A. Dawson, *Language Teaching in Grades 1 and 2*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York, 1949.

Speech development activities. Some speech development activities that have proved successful in classrooms are explained here.

THE GAME OF "IS IT?"   Draw or cut out of magazines a picture for each consonant sound to be developed. Common consonant sounds used in beginning reading are given on page 36. Mount each picture on a 5- by 8-inch card. Place the cards on a wall chart or stand them along a blackboard ledge. One child should be "It" and another child the "Chooser." "It" goes to a corner and stands with his face to the wall, and the "Chooser" selects one of the pictures and holds it up so that other children know which picture he has selected. Then he puts it back and calls "Ready." "It" comes from

the corner to the group and tries to guess which picture was chosen. For example, he may say, "Is it the dog?" If it is not, the other children respond together, "No, it is not the dog." When he names the correct picture, the others respond. "Yes, it is the _____." "It" then becomes the "Chooser" and names another child to be "It."

SPEECH VERSES AND NURSERY RHYMES. Sensitivity to correct speech sounds may be gained through the use of nursery rhymes and speech verses. The pronunciation of word endings is learned through participation in speaking nursery rhymes such as,

> Little Miss Muffet
> Sat on a tuffet
> Eating of curds and whey;
> Along came a spider
> And sat down beside her
> And frightened Miss Muffet away.

Have children fill in the rhyming word:

> Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
> Humpty Dumpty had a great_____.

The use of speech verses provides practice in correct pronunciation of specific speech sounds. The books listed here are among those that provide interesting speech verses for children.

Louise Abney and Grace Rowe, *Choral Speaking Arrangements for the Lower Grades*, Expression Company, Magnolia, Mass.
H. Brown and H. Heltman, *Let's Read Together: Poems*, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York.
Lucille D. Schoolfield, *Better Speech and Better Reading*, Expression Company, Magnolia, Mass.

CHORAL READING. Choral reading promotes correct enunciation and pronunciation of words. For example, "The Clock"[1] provides practice in the initial *t* sound and in the final *k* sound:

<div align="center">

THE CLOCK
Teacher: An old clock hangs upon the wall,
And every morning I hear it call—

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[1] G. A. Yoakam, Kathleen Hester, and Louise Abney, *Making Storybook Friends*, The Laidlaw Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, p. 13.

Children: Tick-tock, tick-tock, tick-tock.

Teacher: High on the wall it runs all day,
          Ticking the minutes and hours away—
Children: Tick-tock, tick-tock, tick-tock.

Teacher: Each evening when I go to bed,
          It's ticking while my prayers are said—
Children: Tick-tock, tick-tock, tick-tock.

Have the children talk about all the different kinds of clocks they
have seen and let them imitate the sounds of some. They might
imitate the tick-tock of a big clock as it sounds when they are hurry-
ing for school, on a long afternoon when it is raining outside, and
in the evening when they are in bed ready to go to sleep.

Read the verse to the children and make the first refrain suggest
hurrying to school, the second sound like a long rainy afternoon,
and the third sound sleepy. Then read the poem while the children
move freely around the room interpreting the tempo of a clock's
tick-tock. As you read the verses again, have pupils join in the re-
frain. If some pupils learn the teacher's part, let them read it while
others read the refrain.

A very comprehensive discussion of choral speaking for classroom
teachers, together with excellent bibliographies of sources for chil-
dren's reading selections may be found in

Mabel Ogilvie, *Speech in Elementary School*, McGraw-Hill Book Com-
    pany, Inc., New York, 1954, chap. V.

Other helpful suggestions for the development of choral reading
may be found in the following books:

Philena Cox and Rosalind Hughes, *Effective Choral Speaking and Read-
    ing*, Contributions in Reading, no. 9, Ginn and Company, Boston.
E. Keppie, *The Teaching of Choric Speech*, Expression Company,
    Magnolia, Mass., 1932.
A. Hamm, *Choral Speaking Technique*, Tower Press, Milwaukee, 1946.

SOUND STORIES.   In this activity a teacher tells or reads a story in
which there are a number of words that begin with a sound to be
developed, such as *ch*. The children clap every time they hear a

word beginning with or containing the sound. Then the story is read again and they supply words that contain the sound as the teacher comes to them.

SOUND RIDDLES. In sound riddles the correct sound must be guessed from riddles that contain other words that begin or end with the sound or have the sound in the middle. For example,

> I'm the first sound in dog,
> The last one in good.
> The first one in down,
> The last sound in wide.
> I am in the word today
> Not the first, not the last.
> I'm the last sound in mud.
> Can you guess me quite fast?

RADIO AND TELEVISION PROGRAMS. Radio and television programs provide an easy means of stressing habits of clear enunciation and accurate pronunciation. Children can be helped to formulate some simple rules for talking during a broadcast. The teacher should make a chart of rules and place it where children can refer to it.

If a real or toy microphone is not available, the children can construct one. A television show should include pictures made by children or real acts. Programs should be kept very simple with emphasis upon good speech habits. The content of the programs should evolve from classroom studies. Some suggested subjects are

> A Pet Program
> Community Helpers
> A Western Program
> Famous People
> Favorite Story Hour

ABILITY TO SPEAK IN SENTENCES AND TO CONVERSE

The ability to speak well and to converse intelligently at any level is dependent largely upon one's experience. Thus a major responsibility of the classroom teacher is to provide adequate experiences to enable pupils to understand and discuss concepts to be presented

in reading. This background of experience is requisite for success in reading. If a child or group of children does not have the background of experience essential for the interpretation of concepts presented on a printed page, it will be necessary for a teacher to provide opportunities for having these experiences, either real or vicarious. This is essential because a child does not get new experiences from a printed page if concepts are lacking entirely. He interprets printed symbols in the light of experiences he has had.

Activities to develop ability to speak and converse. Since the time that can be devoted to such preparation is limited, a teacher should select experiences which will be meaningful and which will provide the necessary background. Thus an alert teacher will first examine the reading material to be used and then explore the immediate community to see how many of the experiences referred to can be provided at first hand.

TRIPS. Careful exploration of the environment will disclose numerous opportunities for broadening a child's background. Trips to a grocery store, to neighborhood gardens, to a farm, and perhaps to a place of business where some child's father works can be arranged usually with little difficulty.

Preparation for any trip must be made carefully, however, if it is to provide the necessary experience. Several discussion periods preceding a trip should be devoted to planning so that the children will be aware of the things for which they are to look as well as of the proper social behavior. Detailed planning with the children will do away with the feeling that is so often evident in a group on a trip—that it is a "day off." Immediately following a trip there should be another discussion period, at which time children will talk about their experiences and compare what they have found out with the purposes previously set up.

CONVERSATION TIME. It is not always possible or practical to provide real experiences for understanding each concept. Quite frequently it may be necessary to substitute vicarious experiences, to have a child profit by experiences of others. Children have plenty of opportunity to learn how to express themselves in a more mean-

ingful and fluent manner. If a child is in need of further development, this can be provided in a conversation period. During this period children may talk about any subjects they wish. They learn about the experiences of others, and in this way they broaden their own backgrounds. A shy child may have difficulty at first, but often he can be brought out of his shyness by telling other members of the group about such things as a certain picture he drew or painted in class which the children had admired. Some of the more advanced children like to tell stories that they have had read to them or their own "pretend" or made-up stories.

Real objects brought to school by children provide a means for drawing out even the most timid child. For example, if a study of transportation is anticipated, let children bring their toy trains to school and tell the class about them—what an engine does, who uses a caboose, and why there are different kinds of cars. Let the children set up one of the toy trains and encourage them to talk about where the train is going and who is on it.

DRAMATIZATION. Dramatization of simple stories which children know very well is an excellent way for them to learn how to interpret what others have said and to enlarge their backgrounds of experience. Many times, through dramatization, a teacher learns that there are some concepts that have "gone completely over a child's head." These can then be explained to children and straightened out.

Through all conversational and dramatization activities, a teacher should be a good listener. She should step into the picture only when it is absolutely necessary. If a child needs assistance in finishing a story or in dramatizing a story, a teacher should be there to give it. However, assistance should never be given to break up continuity, for then the purpose is lost. If a child is given too much help, he may feel that he is not doing the right thing. He is likely to become discouraged and cease trying altogether. Errors should be noted, however, and group exercises devised to correct them. These exercises should be presented at a later time.

EXPERIENCE CHARTS. The recording of pupil experiences provides

an excellent means of expression. To be functional, a record must tell about the vital, interesting, and worthwhile experiences the children have had. Every pupil should be encouraged to participate. If a chart is short, the teacher may ask what should be told next and call for several ways of expressing an idea. Then the children can choose a sentence they think expresses the thought in the best manner. Each child's contribution should be considered. In this manner a shy, reticent child may be drawn into the discussion. Care must be taken to maintain a high level of interest. This means that the teacher must guide the discussion to keep the chart-making moving along at a lively pace but without apparent signs of haste.

The length of the chart is dependent upon the maturity of the children. Three to four simple sentences of six to eight words in length will usually meet the needs of beginners. As the children mature, the length of sentences will be increased.

Unity in thought is essential, and careful guidance should be given to keep the children's sentences directed to the discussion of the topic that is being developed. This is important for later development of reading for central thought. The sequence of events should be kept in order. Chart work affords an opportunity to help children develop the ability to recall events in sequential order.

The style of expression will depend upon the maturity of the children and the purpose of the chart. At kindergarten or beginner's level a chart is used largely to develop a feeling for reading and a need to read. The teacher reads the finished chart to the children. It is not as necessary to control sentence structure or vocabulary at the kindergarten level as it is at an initial reading level. When a child begins to read, he needs simple direct sentences with a maximum of repetition of vocabulary so that he can read a chart independently. As he matures, more freedom of expression is given. Sentences may be as complex as those he is asked to read in his instructional reading program. Care should be taken to keep a chart in the language of the children, however, rather than in the language of the teacher.

A finished chart should be read by the teacher to allow pupils to

make suggestions and corrections. This procedure develops effective listening and gives pupils a pattern of good phrasing. Pictures made by the children may be added to stimulate interest and increase comprehension.

Children have many interesting experiences about which they like to write. A class picnic, for example, may be a profitable experience, especially for city children who have never participated in a picnic. Let the children plan the picnic, and after it is over, have them dictate the sentences they want in their story. Guide the discussion to bring out the important facts in sequential order and write them on a chalkboard as they tell them. Read the story to the children to see whether it is just as they want it and make any revisions that are suggested and accepted by the group. Let the children participate in reading it. Write the story in manuscript on a chart or wrapping paper. Display it in a prominent place so that children can refer to it at frequent intervals but remove it before they tire of it. One first grade wrote the following story about their picnic experience. Later they drew pictures to illustrate it.

<div align="center">

OUR PICNIC

We brought our lunches to school.
We ate them under the trees.
We sang songs.
We played games.
We had lots of fun.

</div>

PICTURE MEMORY. Picture study develops a facility in expressing ideas in complete sentences and affords an opportunity to develop visual memory as well. Show the children an interesting picture, and after they have looked at it and have had an opportunity to study it, remove it. Let the children dictate sentences telling about the picture and write each sentence on a chalkboard as it is dictated. Then read all of the sentences to the children. If necessary, guidance may be given to help the children develop their sentences into a composite story.

SENSORY AIDS. Films and filmstrips offer another excellent opportunity for language development. A filmstrip is especially useful

because pictures can be projected on a screen and held there as long as the teacher wishes. References to previous pictures in a filmstrip may be made simply by turning back to them.

When a picture is flashed on the screen, the children should be allowed to converse about what they see in the picture. Each child should be encouraged to participate. Very shy children who will not participate in classroom conversation frequently enter into a discussion when a room is darkened for pictures.

Many well-known children's favorites, such as "The Three Bears," "Billy Goats Gruff," "Red Hen and Sly Fox," "The Gingerbread Man," and "Peter Rabbit," are available in filmstrips. They are valuable in helping children express themselves. Children may take turns in telling about each picture as it is projected. Later one child may retell an entire episode.

Many other sensory aids which lead to language learnings may be found in Chapter 22.

PUPPET SHOWS. Puppet shows provide another means for a child to learn to express himself in clear concise sentences. They help a timid child to present his interpretation of various characters in a play since he may stand behind a curtain and remain unseen by an audience.

Favorite stories or original plays may be used. Shows should be kept simple and spontaneous. The type of puppets used depends upon the maturity of the children. Stick puppets are enjoyed by young children. Pupils draw, color, and cut out of heavy paper the characters to be used, and each figure is thumbtacked on the end of a ruler. Pupils kneel in back of a table and move the characters along the edge of the table so that they appear to be performing on it.

Second- and third-grade children enjoy making jointed puppets. They draw the figures, cut them out, and join the arms, legs, and head to the body with paper fasteners. Sticks are fastened to parts of the body to be moved. This type of puppet is especially successful for shadow plays.

Intermediate children can make papier-mâché puppets or hand puppets, which are very easy to operate. Both types afford oppor-

tunities for creativeness in construction and allow a child to learn to express himself more adequately.

Detailed information on the construction and use of puppets is available in libraries. An excellent article describing the construction and use of puppets for every age and grade may be found in "Puppetry," *Creating with Materials for Work and Play*, Bulletin no. 5, Leaflet 7, published by the Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C.

Effective Listening

Oral language is a child's bridge to the printed word. The relationship of clear auditory patterns to success in reading has already been discussed. It is a teacher's responsibility to help a child develop habits of effective listening in order that he may receive clear auditory impressions. A number of interesting activities may be used to help develop this skill.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

Sensitivity to likenesses and differences in sounds must be developed first. Music and science offer many opportunities for such discrimination. A few suggestions are listed here.

RHYTHM BAND. A rhythm band helps develop purposeful listening. Both younger and older children profit by and enjoy this experience. Older pupils may develop a rhythm band as a culminating activity for a study of sound in their science program.

Simplicity should be the keynote for a rhythm band, and instruments should be introduced one at a time. First have the children listen to some music and then have them interpret it in a physical activity, such as marching, running, skipping, or creeping. Then introduce an instrument in accordance with the interpretative activity. For example, if a march is played, let the children march around the room and then accompany the marching with rhythm sticks— one beat to each step. Equip some children with rhythm sticks and

have others march to the beat of the sticks until all are familiar with the activity. Other instruments may be introduced singly in a similar manner. A tambourine shake may be used for running, a hand-bell shake for skipping, a triangle trill for laughing, a triangle beat for tiptoeing, and a sand-block brush for creeping.

After pupils are familiar with activities for each instrument, they should listen to the music and interpret it with their instruments. Careful listening will soon enable them to associate the appropriate instrument with music and song.

Directions for making inexpensive rhythm-band instruments may be found in many books and periodicals. Hazel M. Lambert in *Teaching the Kindergarten Child* explains how to make musical instruments from scrap materials. A section called "Simple Instruments," in *Creating with Materials for Work and Play*, Bulletin no. 5, Leaflet no. 8, of the Association for Childhood Education International, gives an excellent explanation of how to use melodic instruments and how to make them from scrap materials. Helpful references are included also. A discussion of the development of a rhythm band through a study of science may be found in an article entitled "A Unit on Sound" by Adele W. Beckett.[2]

A film which pupils enjoy and which helps them develop their own rhythm band is "Rhythmic Instruments and Movement," available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Film, 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois. In this film a second-grade class sees Indian dances of Chief Thundering Hill. Then they learn how to make their own instruments and create their own rhythms.

SCIENCE EXPERIMENTS. Elementary science provides many opportunities for a child to learn to listen effectively. Some activities that have proved valuable are given here.

1. Collect different kinds of insects that make sounds. Keep them in cages made from coffee cans and screening.
2. Listen to different sounds made by tapping on glasses containing water at different levels.

[2] Adele W. Beckett, "A Unit on Sound," *The Instructor*, November, 1949, pp. 20 ff.

3. Place your ear on a table to listen for sounds made by another person scratching on the table.
4. Slash holes in a dandelion stalk and blow.
5. Place a seashell or an empty bottle over one ear and your hand over the other ear. Listen for sounds of the sea.

SOUND IMITATIONS.   The ability to discriminate among sounds may be increased through sound imitations. To imitate a sound successfully requires careful listening. Children begin with imitations of sounds that are grossly different, such as the bark of a dog and the call of a cow, and continue until they are able to make fine discriminations such as the bark of a dog when he is happy, when he is excited, when he hears someone strange, when he is frightened. Games may be played in which children create sounds that are suggested by a picture shown to them, such as the chirp of a bird or the ringing of a church bell. Guessing games in which one child imitates a sound and others try to guess what he is are fun.

MAGIC SOUND.   This game helps the children learn to listen for sounds within words. Children listen while a teacher pronounces two words. If the words are identical, the children clap their hands softly; if the words are different, they remain quiet. Gross differences are easiest to detect, such as the difference between *rabbit* and *house*. Children who are able to perceive these differences may listen for different beginning sounds, such as in *house* and *mouse;* different word endings, such as in *run* and *ride;* and different medial parts, such as in *run* and *ran.*

RHYMES.   Children like to repeat and to create rhymes. Attentive listening is necessary to hear the likenesses and differences in rhyming words. Beginning with nursery rhymes, the children should clap on rhyming words. Later they may supply the rhyming words as a teacher says the rhymes:

> Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
> Humpty Dumpty had a great _____.

Children should be encouraged to create their own rhymes as soon as they can. For example, the classroom may have a "jingle

corner" where original rhymes are written and posted for everyone to see.

> A little boy
> Played with his toy.

Rhyme riddles help point up likenesses and differences in sounds. "Riddley, Riddley, Ree" is an old favorite.

> Riddley, riddley, ree
> I see something you don't see,
> And it sounds like *me*. (Use
>   any word that can be rhymed.)
> Can you find it?

Rhyme stories also help point up likenesses and differences in sounds. Pupils select a story they know and the teacher writes on a chalkboard the events they wish to tell. Then the story is written as it is developed in rhyme by the pupils.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO LISTEN FOR A PURPOSE

Listening for a purpose is a skill which must be developed if a child is to be successful in reading for various purposes. A few suggestions helpful in learning to listen for specific purposes are listed here.

CENTRAL THOUGHT.   The ability to listen for central thought may be started in the primary grades through the use of riddles. An example is the game "Find My Picture." Some pictures are placed on a chalkboard ledge in view of all, and the teacher reads a short descriptive paragraph about one of the pictures. For example,

> I am big and brown.
> I eat grass.
> I give you milk to drink.
> I say "Moo."

Then the teacher says, "Who can find my picture?" A child selects the picture answering the description and says, "It is a cow." If he is correct, the teacher writes the child's name on a chalkboard. He

does not keep the picture since that procedure would reduce the number of choices each time.

Illustrating riddles permits a child to listen effectively for central thought and allows him to express the thought of a paragraph in picture form. The complexity of the riddle should be varied according to the level of the children. Here are examples of such activities:

Directions: Listen carefully to the story. Then draw a picture to tell what it is about.

> I like to run and play.
> I have a house.
> I am eating my dinner.
> I say "Bow-wow."
> Draw me.

I am a holiday that comes in the winter. You are always very busy when I come. You want to make things for all your friends. What am I? Draw a picture of me.

NOTING DETAILS. Tell a story to the children and have them find or draw pictures of some of the details. For example, a story might be told about a birthday party.

Jack and Nancy had a birthday party. They invited two friends, Sue and Timmy. Jack wore a new blue suit. Nancy wore a new red dress. They had a birthday cake with six candles on it. They had ice cream and cocoa, too. Everybody had fun.

Duplicate a page containing pictures of children, a birthday cake with candles on it, a cake without candles, a dress, and a suit. Have children draw rings around everything featured at the party. Then have them color the suit and dress the correct colors.

RETAINING FACTS. The ability to listen purposefully to retain facts may be increased through the use of memory games and exercises. "Traveling" is a good game for learning to retain facts. A child or the teacher starts by saying, for example, "I took a trip to Florida. I saw a cocoanut tree." The next child must repeat all that has been said and add one new thing: "I took a trip to Florida. I saw a

cocoanut tree and a sailboat." The game continues until the list is too long for anyone to remember, and then it is started again.

DRAWING INFERENCES.   Read or tell a story up to a critical point and then let children tell what they think will happen. Encourage individual interpretations of the story ending. An interesting variation of this type of exercise is to have each child draw a picture to tell how he thinks a story ends, as follows:

Directions: Listen carefully to the story. I shall read part of it to you, then I shall ask each one to draw a picture to tell how he thinks the story ends. Later you may tell your ending of the story as you show your picture.

CLASSIFYING OBJECTS.   To help children learn to listen for purposes of organization, let them participate in exercises such as the following.

Have pupils cut out pictures of furniture for a house and place them in a pile on a table. Tell them a story about children who live in the house. Have them listen to find out what pieces of furniture are in each room. Let them select and thumbtack on a bulletin board the furniture for each room. Label each room as, for example, Jack's bedroom, kitchen, Nancy's room.

Variations of this exercise may be used for older children to develop the ability to listen for organizational purposes. For example, geographical stories are interesting and valuable. Children can select food, clothing, and types of shelter that story characters see as they visit various countries.

Effective Observation

Effective observation, as has been pointed out, is another factor essential for success in reading. When a child is unable to observe effectively to the extent that he fails to perceive likenesses and differences among forms of words or lacks the ability to gain ideas from pictures or does not associate objects and words to a degree

necessary for successful reading, it is the responsibility of the teacher to provide more experiences for development of this skill.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN VISUAL DISCRIMINATION

Before a child is able to see likenesses and differences among word forms, he must have the ability to distinguish concrete objects, semi-concrete or picture forms, and semi-abstract or geometric forms and patterns. It is necessary to start at the level at which a child is capable of discerning these differences. A few exercises and games for the development of each of these steps in visual discrimination are suggested here. Alert teachers will find many more opportunities to develop these skills.

Concrete objects. Elementary science offers a wealth of experiences for learning to observe effectively.

WEATHER FLAGS. Have the pupils bring in pieces of old white cloth for making weather flags. Make a solution of 1 part of cobaltous chloride and 10 parts of gelatin to 100 parts of water. Dip the cloth in the solution and allow it to dry. Have pupils make flags from the cloth by fastening an oblong piece to a stick with thumbtacks. Let them place the flags where everyone can see them. The flags will be blue when the air is dry, violet when there is a slight increase of moisture in the air, and pink when the air is very humid. After pupils have observed the changes several times, let them tell how they might use the information they get from the flags.

LEAF PRINTS. Have pupils bring in different kinds of leaves. Effective leaf prints can be obtained by using pastel colored paper and contrasting crayons. To make a print, a child should pin a leaf to a paper. Crayon over the leaf out from the center of the leaf on to the paper. Remove the leaf. If this work is being done by older children, let them look through tree books to identify various leaves. Then mount them on a bulletin board with the name of the tree below the print (see illustration showing steps in the process). In the first illustration a leaf is shown pinned to a paper. In the second, the leaf and paper have been crayoned. In the third, the leaf has been removed.
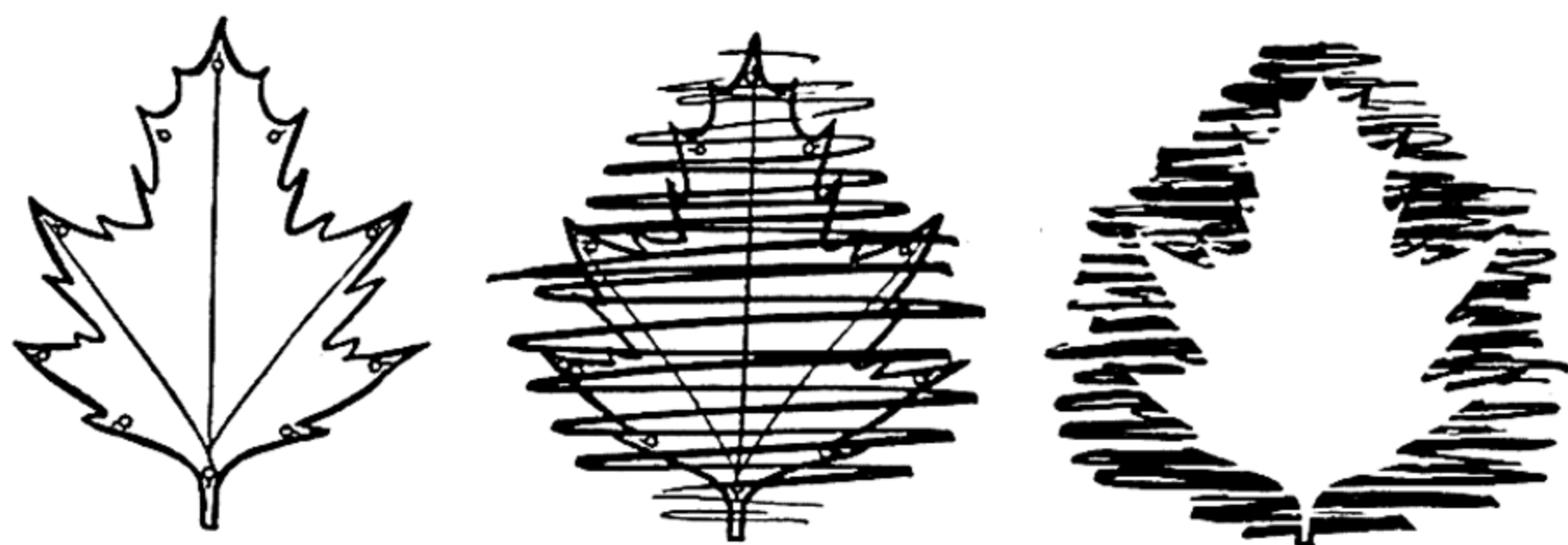
Leaf prints

Semiconcrete forms and picture discrimination. A child who is able to see likenesses and differences in concrete form is ready to learn to discriminate picture forms. The exercises described here will help him.

PICTURE MATCHING. Games similar to "Lotto" can be used very successfully in training for visual discrimination, either in kindergarten or during a prereading period of first grade.

For the game of "Picture Matcho" make two large charts on 9-by 12-inch oaktag or heavy paper for each child in the group. Put various figures in the blocks. Use the same figures on all charts, but arrange them in different order on each one, so as to prevent a child from placing his cards by watching someone else. Pictures on a second card are cut apart and kept in a little envelope clipped to a big card.

The game is played by having a leader (one child from the group) hold up one of the picture cards. Other children look carefully, find their own little card with the same picture, and place it on a big card on top of the picture it matches. A child who first covers a complete row across or up and down is the winner, and he is the leader the next time the game is played. This game is received enthusiastically by little children. From time to time pictures may be replaced with others requiring finer discriminations, until finally a child learns to discern minute differences very rapidly. This is prerequisite to seeing differences between words in beginning reading.
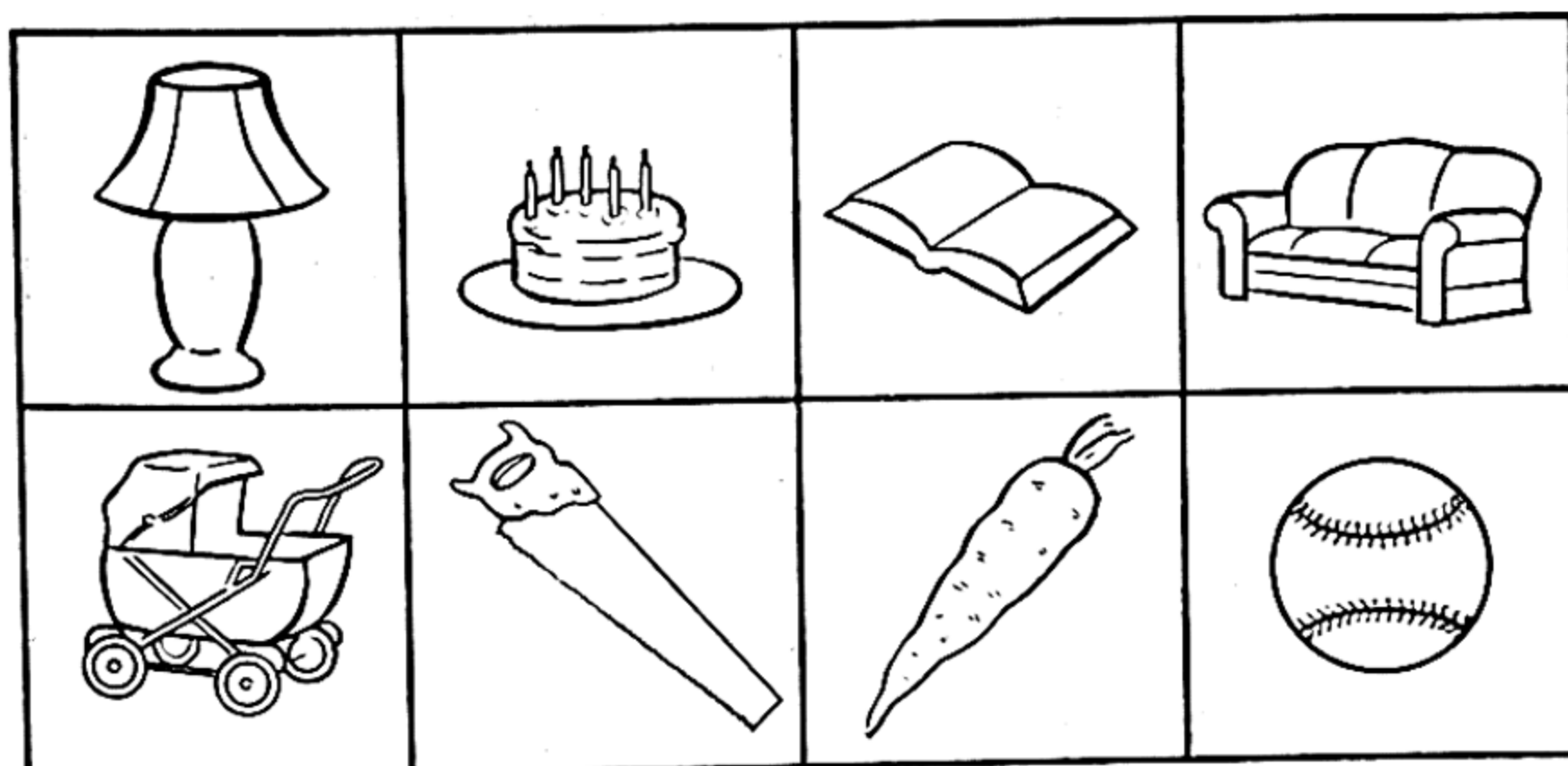
Portion of a Picture-Matcho chart

PUZZLES. Jigsaw puzzles provide an excellent means for added training in visual memory and afford an opportunity to improve motor coordination as well. Large puzzles with few pieces are best for beginners. Pictures should have definite coloring so that a child, in looking for a piece to fit into a puzzle, may remember both general shape and color. Placing a piece in proper position after it has been found will help develop motor coordination.

MISSING PARTS. Another game that assists in development of visual discrimination and eye-hand coordination is "The Lost Part." Each child is given a duplicated sheet containing a series of pictures. Each series is composed of two rows of pictures. The top row contains complete pictures. The second row has identical pictures excepting that one part has been left out (see illustration on following page). A child looks at a picture in the top row, then looks at the one immediately below it. He finds what is missing and draws it in the second picture.

AIRPLANE IDENTIFICATION. Identifying airplanes helps older children to learn to observe details effectively. It teaches them to focus on small details of a picture as preparation for discriminating letters within a word. Have the children collect and mount pictures of airplanes. Let them write the name and type of airplane on the back of each picture after they have found and identified it in a
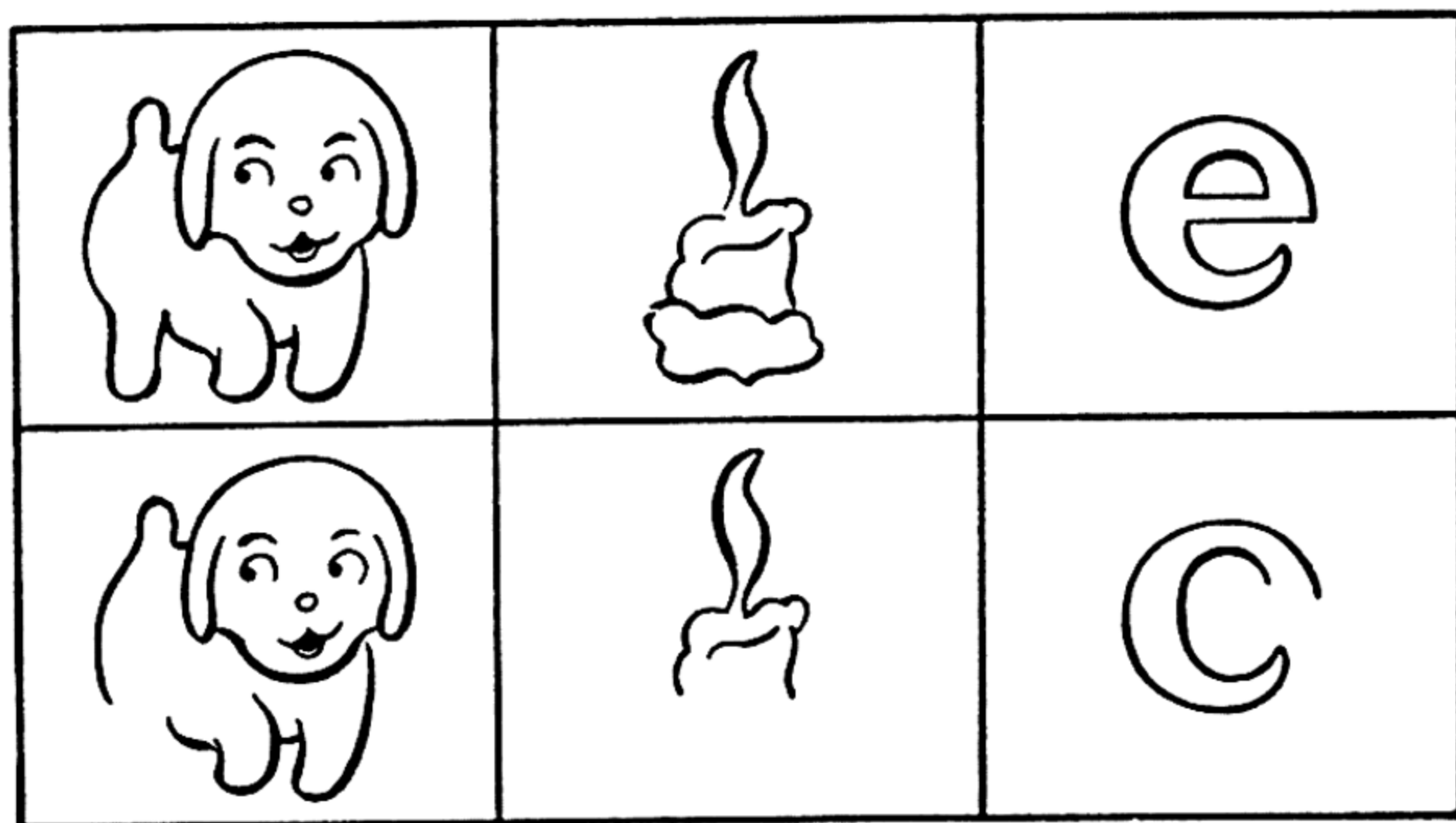
"The Lost Part" puzzle

book of airplanes. Then let them devise games in which they try to identify each picture. Give them a chance to identify airplanes that pass overhead also.

Discrimination of geometric forms. Since letters are composed of circles, parts of circles, and straight lines, it is important for a child to be able to discern differences in these geometric forms before he begins to attempt to note likenesses and differences within words. Some suggestions for development of this skill are given here.

"Magic Two." For this activity a teacher has about twenty sets of cards with geometric forms. Each set is made up of two cards that have identical forms. The children sit in a small group near the teacher. She holds up two cards at a time for a few seconds, then puts them down again. If they are alike, the children sit quietly. If they are not alike, the children softly clap their hands or call "Magic." When the children are adept at making gross discriminations, figures requiring finer discriminations should be used.

CHARTS AND FLANNELBOARDS. Charts can be used effectively. Make two charts, one labeled "Alike" and the other "Different." Supply pictures for children to cut and paste. There should be
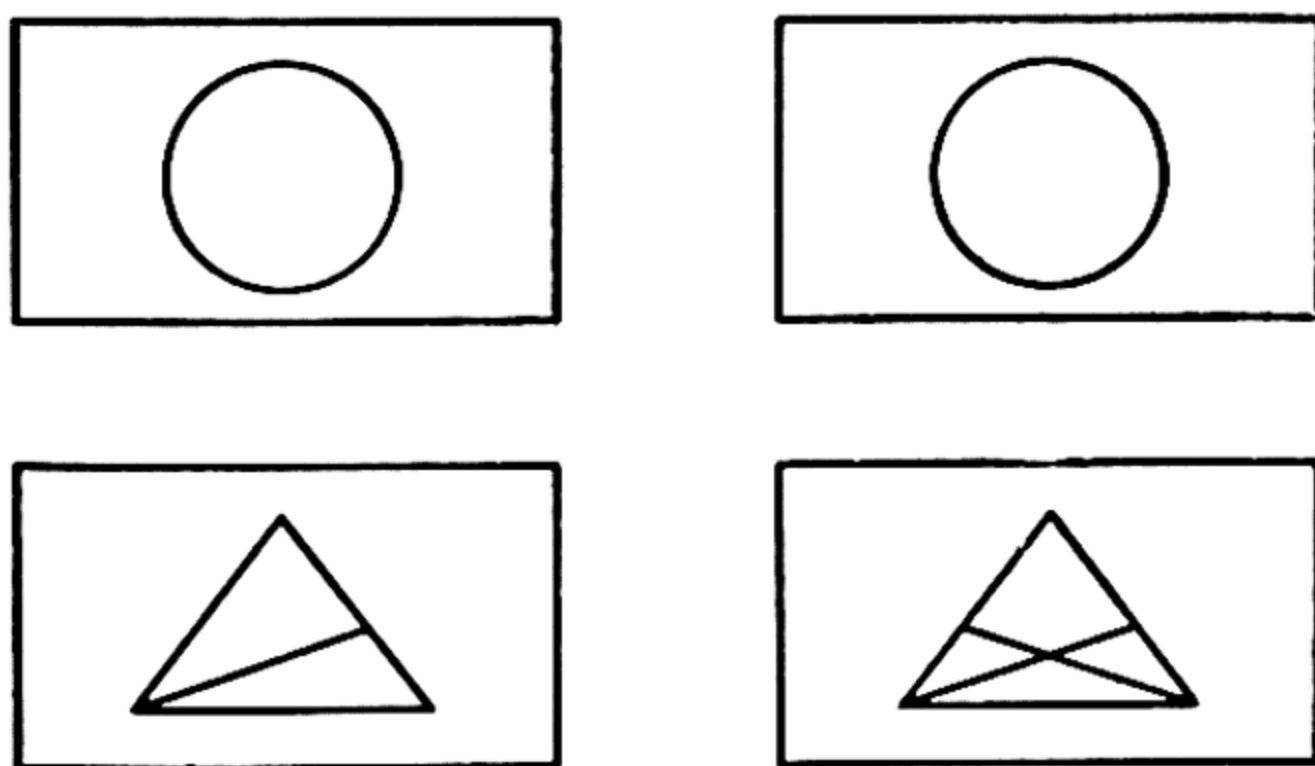
"Magic Two" forms

some sets of identical pictures, as three balls or two stars exactly alike. Let them paste pictures that are alike on the "Alike" chart and pictures that are different on the "Different" chart.

For a flannelboard cover an easel with flannel and paste little pieces of flannel on the backs of circles, squares, triangles, and semi-circles cut from heavy paper. Have the children find and place in a row geometric forms that are alike. (A backing of flannel adheres to the flannel on an easel.)

For another exercise, place a row of forms on a flannelboard and let children remove from the row those forms that are not exactly alike. The diagram below shows three rows of figures placed on a board. Take note of a child who is unable to detect reversed figures in each row. This child needs more experience in observing from left to right lest he reverse letters such as *b* and *d* when he reads.

Discrimination of abstract forms and words. The skill of effective observation must not be limited to seeing likenesses and differences in concrete objects, pictures, and geometric forms. For efficient reading a child must be taught how to look at a word correctly. Habits of keen observation together with experience in looking at a word from left to right must be developed. Exercises such as the following will help develop this skill.

MATCHING WORD FORMS. The teacher should duplicate pages of

words such as those illustrated below. Words should be arranged in the left-hand column of a page. The right-hand column should be left blank. Another sheet containing the same words should be
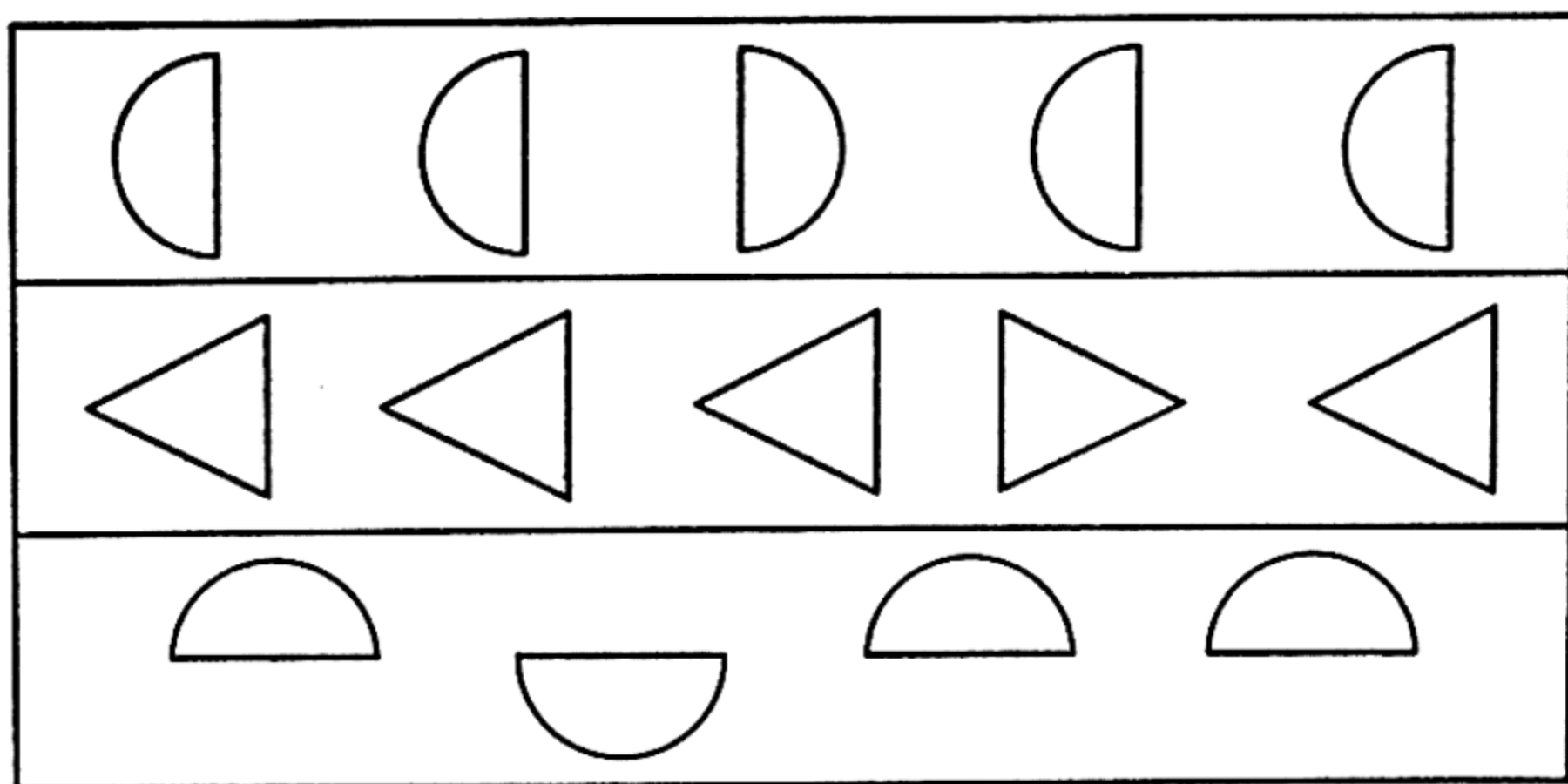
Figures on a flannelboard

duplicated and cut apart. Children should place each word beside the one that is like it on the big sheet. Mount each set on heavy paper, place in an envelope, and keep for use again.

those	
into	
went	
run	

those	went
into	run

Puzzle pages

Ability to see the likenesses and differences of words in context requires greater skill in visual perception than that required for matching words in isolation. To help the children gain facility in

this skill, let them have a word hunt. Duplicate a page containing a short story. Be sure large primer type is used for young children. Write in manuscript on large cards the words to be hunted. As you hold up a large card the children look at it carefully; then they find and frame it on their story page. Encourage them to look rapidly across each line of print from left to right.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN GAINING IDEAS FROM PICTURES

Development of skill in picture reading may be accomplished through the use of pictures that depict concepts within the children's experiences. Hold up a picture and let each child interpret it, encouraging him to read into it all that he can from his own experience. Encourage the children to draw inferences from the things observed.

Older children find it interesting and profitable to interpret geographical pictures. They may tell climate, work activities, and other interesting facts from a picture of a country. Later let them check the facts they have inferred from the pictures by finding information about the country in a textbook.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN ASSOCIATING OBJECTS AND WORDS

Skill in analyzing details and observing significant differences among words is increased by associating word forms with meaningful experiences. A few suggested ways by which this may be done are given here.

LABELS. Captions under bulletin board pictures and labels on different things in a room, such as SCIENCE CORNER and LIBRARY TABLE, will help pupils associate words with objects.

CONCEPT GAMES. Let children construct a big house out of blocks or cardboard. Then have them cut out and mount pictures of people. When you show the card *into* and tell children, "Mother goes *into* the house," have a child make mother carry out the action. Other concepts such as *out of* may be developed in a similar manner. It is important that the children see a word and then carry out the action in order to strengthen the associations.

Left-to-Right Directional Movement

A child does not arrive at the age of reading with the knowledge that he must go from left to right across a page. Observation of the perceptual habits of young children viewing pictures gives evidence of the fact that a child begins at any point on a page. He has viewed pictures successfully by this method, and he does not know that this approach cannot be used when he looks at words. Since reading, spelling, and writing must be done with rightward progression, it is vitally important to instill these habits of rightward progression across a printed page and sequential observation of letters within words. Teachers are responsible for development of this skill. Some suggestions for providing the necessary instruction are given below.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN DIRECTIONAL MOVEMENT

IDENTIFICATION OF LEFT AND RIGHT HANDS. Duplicate each child's hands on a large sheet of paper, and place one sheet in front of each child. Show children which is their left hand and have them fit their left hand on the pattern. Do the same with the right hand. In explaining left and right to them a teacher should always stand with her back to the class while demonstrating.

GAMES. "Simon Says" and other games can be adapted to teach left and right. Children stand in a line or row. If a direction is preceded by the words "Simon says," they must do exactly what the leader tells them to do. If a direction is given without the words "Simon says" they do nothing. Anyone who carries out a command not preceded by "Simon says" is out. The last one to remain up is leader for the next game. For example,

> Simon says, "Lift your right foot."
> Shake your left hand. (Action not to be carried out.)
> Simon says, "Put your right foot forward."
> Simon says, "Walk to the right."
> Turn to the left. (Action not to be carried out.)

DANCES. Simple little dances such as "Looby Loo" are valuable

for teaching left and right and are enjoyed by children of primary and intermediate grades. In teaching these dances, have the children stand in a straight line rather than in a circle so that they do not become confused by children across the circle from them who appear to be using the wrong hand and foot.

PICTURES. Show a picture to the children and have them tell what is on the left side of the picture, what is on the right, and the directional placement of different items on the picture. Another activity is to arrange pictures on a blackboard ledge or bulletin board to tell a story. Be sure they are arranged in left to right sequential order.

MOVING PICTURES. Let the children make a movie by pasting pictures to tell a story in sequential order from left to right on a long piece of wrapping paper. To make a stage, take a large carton and cut a window in the front of it that is the same height as the paper the children used for their pictures. Cut a slit in each end of the carton through which the movie reel may pass (see accompanying
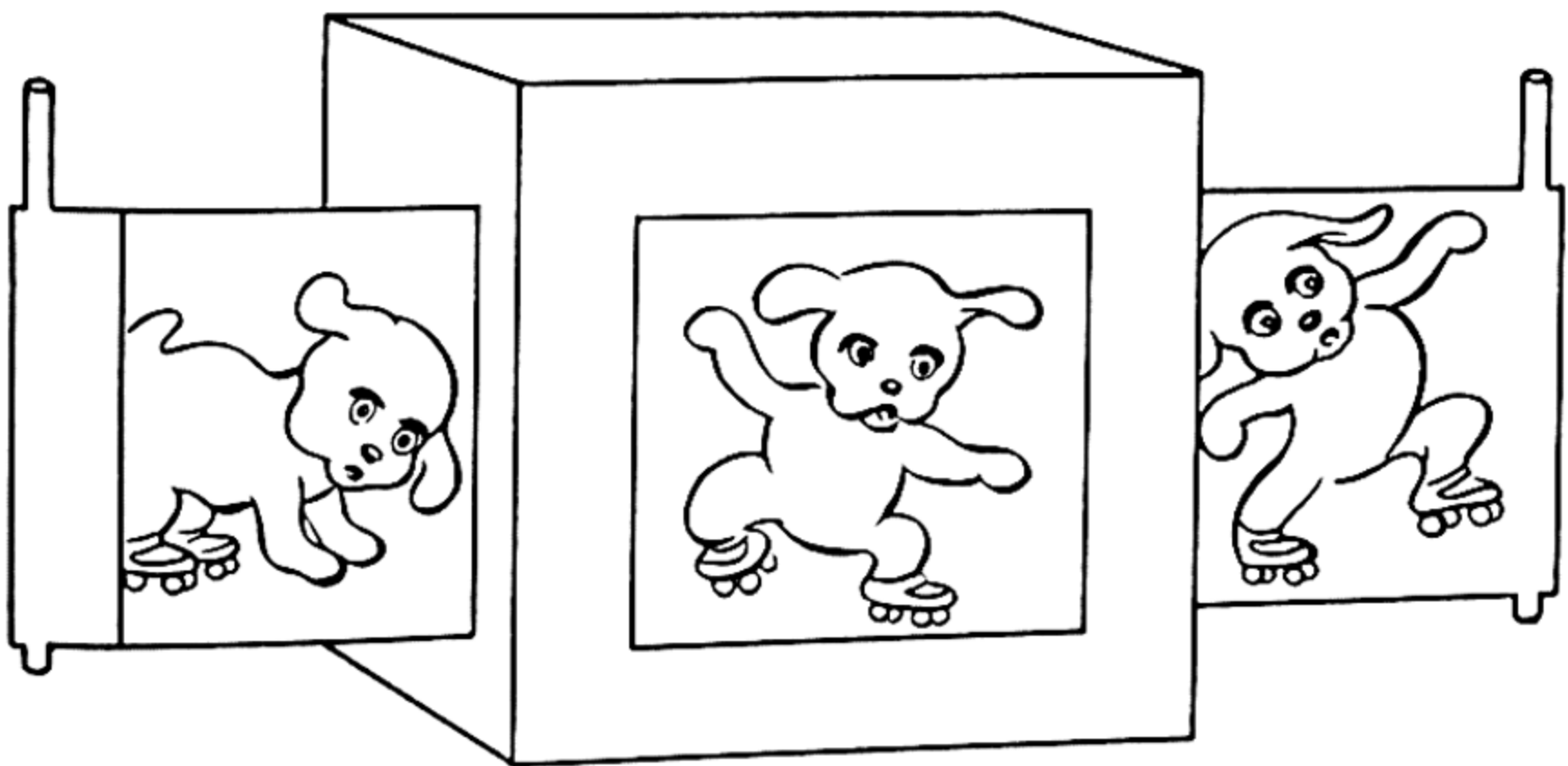
Moving-picture box

drawing). Thread the reel through the slits. Paste each end of the reel to a stick. Turn the sticks to unroll the movie. As each picture is shown, let a child tell about it. Be sure the reel is threaded so pictures unroll from left to right.

MEMORY GAMES.   Put three or four objects in a row on a table or desk. Tell children to look carefully at them. Then cover the objects and let them try to name them in order starting with the first object at the left and going to the right. Let a child who can tell in correct order be "It" and rearrange them for a new game.

Also, place a group of objects on a table and let a child who is "It" pick up an object. He stands with his back to the group, holding the object in either his right or left hand and chooses someone to tell what he has in his hand. A child who has been chosen may answer, "You have a crayon in your right hand." The child who guesses correctly both object and correct hand is "It" for a new game.

KINESTHETIC EXERCISES.   Exercises in which a child traces from left to right strengthen his feeling for rightward progression. Later the exercise may be expanded to include tracing from left to right with a return sweep to the next line and continued tracing rightward to the end of a second line.

A kinesthetic exercise is a very effective way to teach a child how to examine a word. If the habit of viewing a word from left to right is thoroughly instilled, the chances for making errors such as *saw* for *was* and *left* for *felt* will be reduced to a great extent. Children trace words with their fingers first, then with their crayons or pencils. Careful supervision must be given during such an exercise to be sure that the children begin at the left and follow the letters sequentially and that they begin at the correct point on each letter, as indicated by the arrows and numbers in the illustration on page 121.

CHART READING.   Emphasis may be given to left-to-right movements if, when reading a chart to children, a teacher sweeps her hand from left to right under phrases as she reads them. When writing on a chalkboard she should call attention to the fact that writing is being made from left to right. When erasing, children should be taught to start to erase a word at its beginning and move toward the right.

CALENDARS.   These may be used to advantage to help children become conscious of left-to-right movement across a line and return sweep to a new line. A teacher can take a piece of easel paper and

Mary Ann
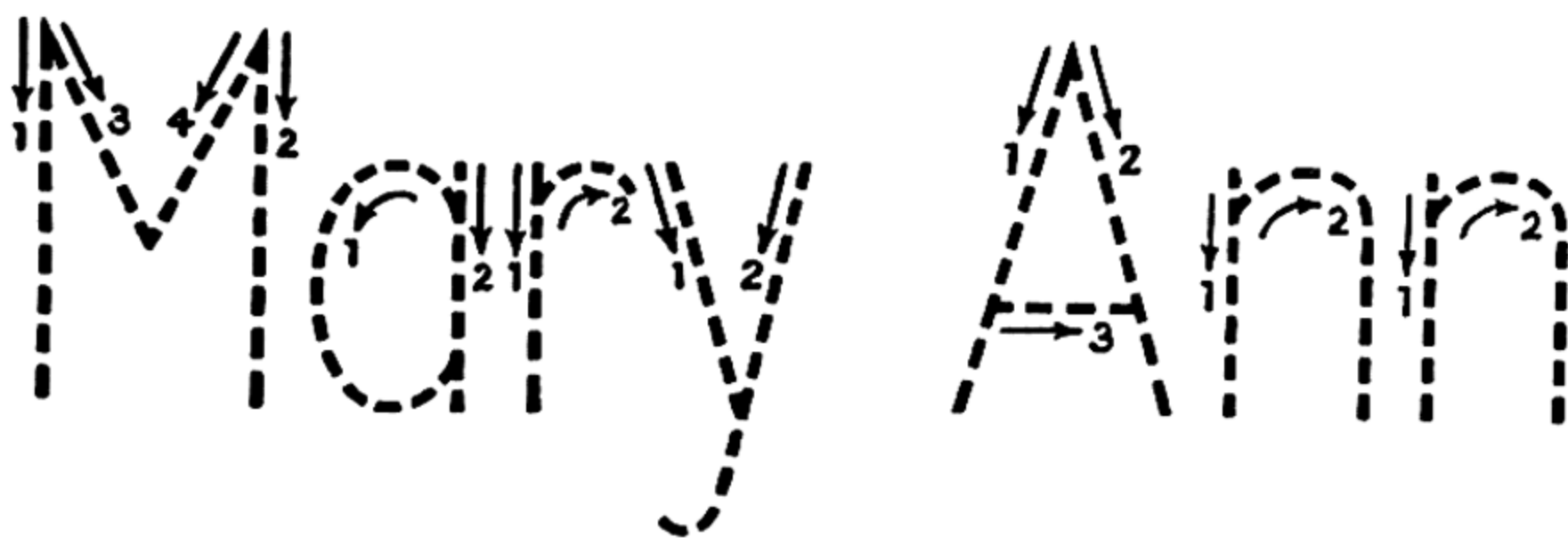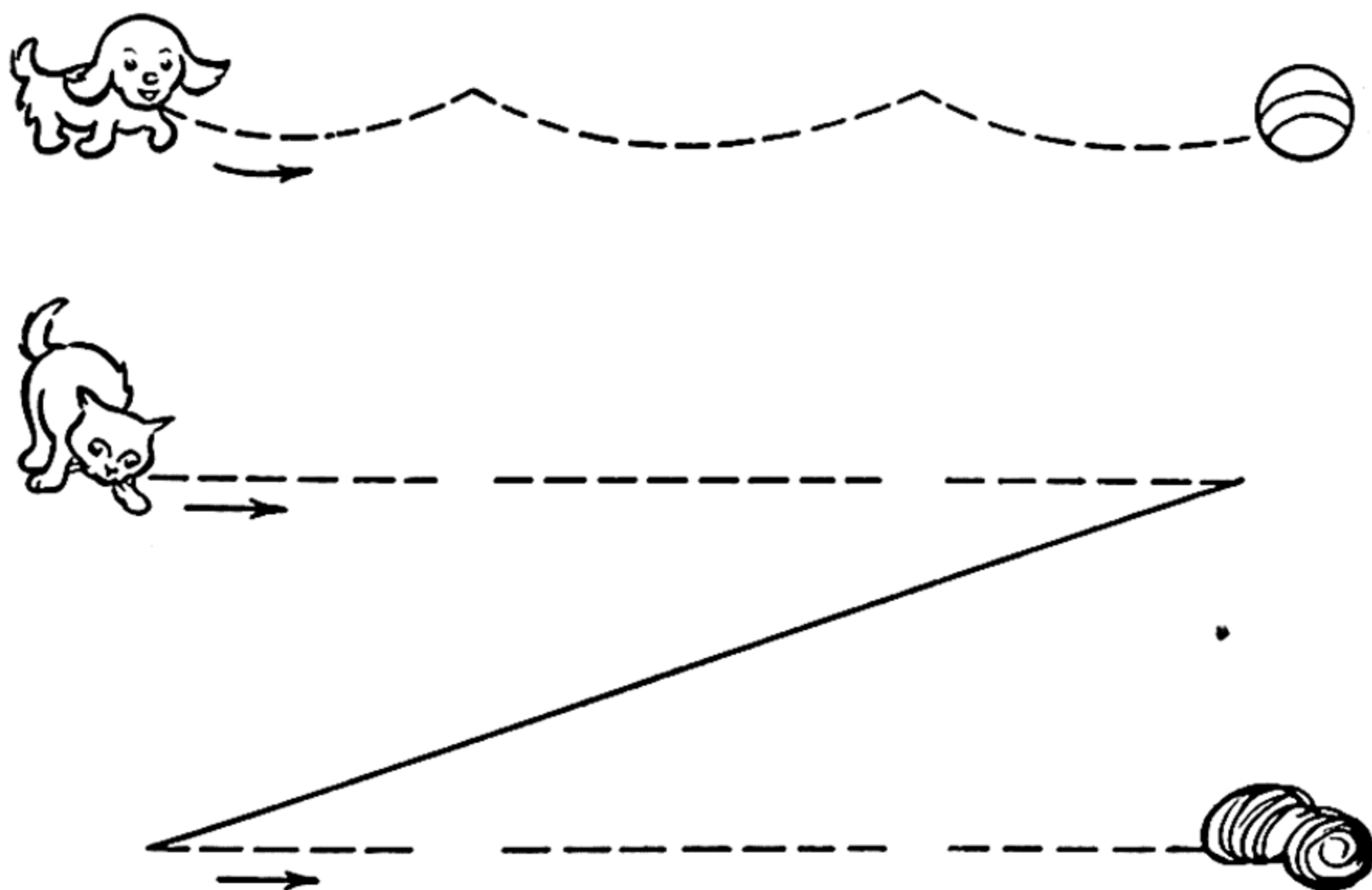
Kinesthetic exercises

make a large calendar to put on a bulletin board, or a pupil can draw a large one on a blackboard. In conversation period, discuss the way to read it. Each day a child may mark the calendar.

ART ACTIVITIES. Many art experiences can be utilized to provide opportunities for development of rightward progression.

Construction of table mats is an activity that will help develop this skill. Mats are attractive and useful. Give each child a square

sheet of heavy paper that has been folded to make sixteen blocks—four in a row. Have each child make a simple design in the first block of the first row. He should make the same design in the remaining blocks of that row, working from left to right. In the first block of the second row, have him make another design. That design should be repeated across the second row. The third row should repeat the design of the first, and the fourth should repeat the design of the second. Have children color the designs. Mats should then be shellacked or varnished. They make interesting table covers for children to use while they are eating their lunches and can be wiped off with a damp cloth.

Development of Muscular Coordination

The importance of muscular maturation and development of muscular control has been discussed previously.

Exercises to help a child gain control of his large muscles, then of his small muscles, will facilitate the reading process. A few exercises of this type are suggested here. It must be remembered, however, that exercises will not be effective unless physical maturation is present also.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP MUSCULAR COORDINATION

Games. An alert teacher will find many games that help a child develop the large-muscle control necessary for smooth walking, running, hopping, and tiptoeing. Some favorites are given here.

MUSICAL CHAIRS. Arrange chairs in a circle. Have one less chair than there are players. Children walk around the circle as long as the music is going. When the music is suddenly stopped, the children sit down quickly. Since there is one less chair than there are children, a child who is not fast enough has no chair to sit on. He may sit down outside the circle. Remove one chair. Start the music again. Continue the game until there is only one child left.

BOUNCE THE BALL. This is an exercise that encourages the development of eye-hand coordination. Play some music with a simple definite rhythm, preferably two beats to a measure. Children bounce a ball on the first beat and catch it on the second beat. They may sing the rhythm with the teacher, for example, "Bounce, catch, bounce, catch."

RINGTOSS. A sturdy ringtoss game may be built by using two ends of an orange crate and a piece of broom handle about 10 inches long. Nail one end piece on top of the other one. Now drill a hole in the center of the end piece the size of the broom handle and insert the handle into the hole, securing it with glue. Then fasten the handle more securely with nails. Sand and paint the stand and peg attractively. Make rings from plastic clothesline or heavy rope. Tossing rings onto pegs helps to develop eye-hand coordination.

HOT BALL. Children sit in a circle, spreading their legs to close the circle. They roll two balls back and forth as fast as they can. The object of the game is to keep the balls within a circle.

Other games such as beanbag, marbles, jacks, tops, and baseball are also valuable.

Making geometric designs. Making circles, stars, triangles, squares, rectangles, and designs from combinations of these forms encourages coordination of small muscles. For young children, simple designs should be duplicated on 12- by 18-inch paper. The size is diminished gradually as a child gains control of these muscles. If a child colors and then cuts out the designs, he will gain skill in the manipulation of scissors as well as in coordination of eye and hand muscles.

Making geometric forms is superior to making pictures of animals and other objects because designs do not inhibit a child's creativeness for future art work.

Interpreting choric speech. Muscular control may be fostered through the use of choral speaking verses. A teacher should choose a selection of interest to children and read it with all the joy and appreciation of which she is capable to make the rhythm and mood felt. Children should listen and tell what actions the poem suggests

to them, as running, skipping, jumping, walking, or hopping. With the next reading, children move about the room in interpretative actions. Each child should be encouraged to interpret the rhythm in his own way.

When the children are able to feel and interpret poems that call for complete physical movement, they should then be given opportunity to listen and interpret those that call for partial response, such as, swaying, rocking, finger acting, swinging arms, clapping, and other actions that are possible while pupils remain at their seats.

A list of selections for complete rhythmic response and one for partial rhythmic response may be found in *Speech Improvement Through Choral Speaking* by Elizabeth E. Keppie and other books published by the Expression Company, Magnolia, Massachusetts. Other books that contain choral speaking verses are listed on page 97.

Other classroom activities. Many other activities integrated with classroom studies offer possibilities for development of muscular co-ordination and control. Finger painting, creative drawing, painting, clay modeling, and work with blocks, beads, and puzzles will provide experiences to further encourage development of small muscles.

Constructing puppet stages and making puppets from cardboard or papier-mâché help develop muscular coordination. If children make puppets to dramatize stories they have read, comprehension will be fostered as well.

Kinesthetic exercises such as those described on pages 120 and 121 for understanding left-to-right movement also encourage the development of muscular coordination.

Ability to Follow Oral Directions

Skill in listening to and interpreting oral directions is prerequisite to ability to follow written directions. The relationship of this skill to success in reading has been discussed in a previous section.

The ability to follow oral directions successfully is dependent upon

a pupil's ability to relate events in proper sequential order and to remember a minimum of three items while executing the items in correct order. A teacher must provide experiences to help pupils build these skills. She should take advantage of every opportunity that presents itself in a classroom to have pupils follow oral directions. One direction should be mastered before pupils are asked to follow two or more directions. The following directions show a gradual increase in difficulty.

1. Bring a book. (One direction.)
2. Bring a book from the desk. (Two directions.)
3. Bring a red book from the table. (Three directions.)
4. Bring a blue book and a pencil from the cupboard. (Four directions.)
5. Take a blue book and a pencil from the cupboard and place them on the table. (Five directions.)

Some exercises that will help pupils gain skill in relating events in proper sequential order and in remembering a series of items in correct sequential order while executing them are suggested here.

ACTIVITIES FOR RELATING EVENTS IN CORRECT SEQUENTIAL ORDER

EXPERIENCE STORIES. Let each pupil tell what he has done from the time he got up in the morning until he arrived at school. Be sure events are in correct order. In the beginning a young child may say, "I ate my breakfast. I came to school. I got out of bed. I brushed my teeth." Help him to reorganize items to tell a story in correct sequence.

Older pupils may gain the same type of experience through retelling a story they have read or a television program they have seen.

BULLETIN BOARD STORIES. Choose a picture story with which children are familiar. Ten-cent-store books of *The Gingerbread Boy*, *Peter Rabbit*, and other favorites are excellent for this purpose. Cut out the pictures. Place them on a blackboard ledge. Have children arrange them in order to tell the story in its correct sequence.

Rearrangement of series of pictures related to materials children

are studying, such as steps in making steel by the Bessemer process, serves the same purpose for older pupils.

ACTIVITIES FOR REMEMBERING ITEMS WHILE EXECUTING THEM IN CORRECT ORDER

WORKBOOKS. Workbooks and worksheets provide excellent practice in following oral directions. Care should be taken to have instructions for their use at a level which children can comprehend.

ERRANDS. Running errands at home or at school affords opportunities for children to remember several items at a time.

SINGING GAMES. There are many singing games that require a child to follow directions. "The Little Princess" is a favorite among primary children. Words and music for this game may be found in *Education in the Kindergarten* by Foster and Headley, published by American Book Company, New York.

"London Bridge," "The Farmer in the Dell," and "Drop the Handkerchief" are a few singing games that are popular also.

GAMES. Games that permit all children to participate all of the time are most effective. An example is "The Captain Commands." A leader begins by giving a command such as "The captain commands: Hop on one foot!" Children must obey the command. If, however, a command is given that is not prefaced by the statement "The captain commands," it must not be carried out. Any child who executes such a command is placed in a guardhouse. Instead of leaving the game he continues playing but does so on the side of the room designated as the guardhouse. A leader should order all sorts of commands to be obeyed. Amusing orders make the game more fun.

ACTIVITIES RELATED TO WORK IN THE CLASSROOM

Children's ability to follow oral directions can be developed by activities like those suggested below.

DRAWINGS. Simple line drawings made according to directions are fun and teach a child how to listen and follow directions. For example, to draw a bird, give the following directions:

1. Draw an egg for the body.
2. Draw a little egg for the head.
3. Add wings, tail, and feet.

Interesting directions in rhyme form for drawing pictures are given in a ten-cent-store book entitled, *First Steps to Draw and Color* by Lawrence and Virginia Ford, published by The Saalfield Publishing Company, Akron, Ohio.

MAKING COMIC STRIPS. Have children fold a long strip of paper into four parts to make a comic strip. Tell them to draw illustrations of a story that they have read or that has been read to them in the first three sections. In the fourth section have them draw a surprise ending for the story. Later let each child tell the story of his strip as he shows it to the group.

STICK PRINTING. Children who are studying about the early stages of civilization will be interested in learning to do stick printing.
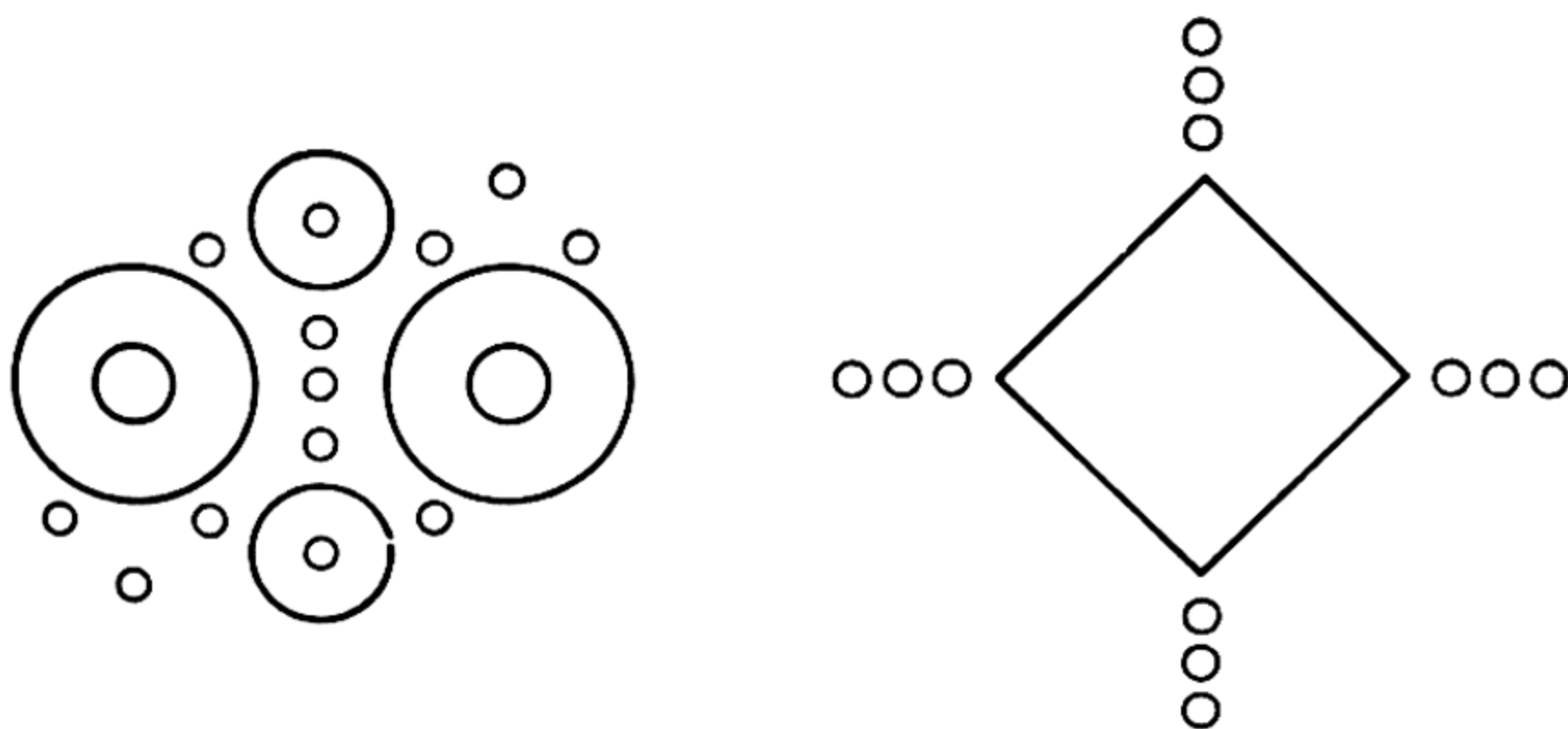
Stick printing

Primitive people made designs with very crude instruments. Pupils can follow the same techniques to make designs for articles such as notebook covers, badges, and costumes. Have pupils collect various wooden shapes such as spools, meat skewers, dowels, match sticks, and building blocks. Let them try different arrangements until they get a desired pattern. To print, put a cloth into a jar lid. Soak it with tempera or finger paint. Press the end of the block or stick

onto the pad filled with paint. Then press it onto the surface of the material to be printed.

DIORAMAS. Making dioramas to depict the main episodes of a story develops pupils' understanding of a story as well as skill in following directions. Tiny characters for dioramas may be dressed and placed according to specific directions.

A Summary Statement

This chapter has presented ways in which a teacher may help foster growth in educational factors essential for success in reading. Suggested activities for bringing about physical, social, and emotional development and for advancing educational factors have been presented for all levels of instruction. These factors have been considered separately for obvious reasons. In such a presentation there is always the danger that a teacher may teach skills without consideration of individual needs of children. It must be remembered that the growth of each child must be considered as a whole. Activities must be developed in meaningful situations. Maturity cannot be forced but it can be fostered.

PART FOUR

A teacher plans for development of fundamental reading skills

READING is defined in Part One as a creative activity which involves thinking. This process implies knowledge of many reading skills which are fundamental if a person is to read successfully. Skill in word recognition, ability to understand meanings of words, skill in understanding what is read, in organizing and remembering, in locating information, in reading aloud to interpret to an audience—all are essential if a person is to read critically and creatively.

Learning to read, therefore, is a gradually developing process in which each step is dependent upon increasing proficiency in fundamental skills. There must be a sequence and continuity of learning to ensure maximum success. Regardless of a teacher's preference for a specific method of teaching, she must take care that no important reading skill is slighted or omitted. Careful and

continuous guidance is necessary. The old adage, "We learn to read by reading," does not hold true if a child lacks fundamental skills. This truth is pointed up particularly well in the field of sports. Never do we have an Olympic champion who has not been guided carefully through a hierarchy of skills by an efficient coach. True, a man may learn to swim by the trial and error method, but before he reaches championship status, he will have had careful systematic training. In like manner, a child may learn to read in a perfunctory manner, but today's world demands much more if he is to survive in a democracy, to remain free from influences of propaganda, and to forge ahead into the world of tomorrow.

Care must be taken at all times, however, lest a teacher view reading as an accumulation of isolated skills. All learning situations must be meaningful and related to a child's needs and experiences if reading is to be developed as a thinking process.

CHAPTER 11 ✦ DEVELOPING SKILL IN LEARNING NEW WORDS INCLUDING A PROGRAM OF PHONICS INSTRUCTION

A RICH, meaningful vocabulary is important for success in reading. Reading is talking. It is a means of communication in which printed symbols are used to convey the thoughts of a writer. The real purpose of reading is to get meaning. It is not a mastery of a body of skills. It is an interpretation of experiences designed to help round out the development of a child and an adult. This does not mean that a good reader may lack skill in mechanics of reading, but rather that skills and habits will be more effective and more meaningful because they are a means to an end rather than an end in themselves.

A good reader must be master of words. An adult who does not understand the vocabulary of the press is handicapped. Concept building and vocabulary development continue to be major factors in developing citizens who can read with understanding, make accurate interpretations, and appreciate fine shadings in meanings of words that are used in literature.

Most educators today believe that a broader approach to vocabulary development is needed. During the 1930's and early 1940's there was overemphasis on the scientific control of vocabulary load in reading textbooks. This was the period of the "pallid primer." Learning and retention of vocabulary depended almost entirely upon repetition of words, often in rather meaningless stories. Too little emphasis was placed upon learning vocabulary through concept building and interest. Many primary books introduce too few words to challenge pupils and to stimulate growth. On many occasions the writer has sat across a table from a mentally alert child who could not read. When asked why he had not learned to read, the child responded, "Why should I? There's nothing to it when you are through."

Middle-grade teachers frequently meet problems such as Bob had.

Bob was a quiet, unobtrusive boy of eleven years. He was in fifth grade

at school. His teacher was desperate. She said, "Bob is a bright boy, I know. He does very well in his daily, oral class work or in discussion of any timely topic. I do not feel justified in failing him because his work is of such high quality. Yet on any test Bob is a total failure."

An investigation disclosed the fact that Bob was a total nonreader. He could not even begin to read a preprimer, to say nothing of a test paper. His mother explained that his family was terribly worried about Bob because he had never learned to read. In order to gain help, therefore, Bob had brought home his books every evening and some member of the family read them to him. Being an intelligent lad, he could retain the material well and therefore participate orally in class discussion.

A study of the causes of Bob's difficulties disclosed the fact that he had not been challenged by reading materials in his first-grade work. To solve his problem it was necessary to gain his interest and begin anew to build a reading vocabulary.

The value of interest and the relationship of material to the life of a child cannot be underestimated as factors in the learning process. Many years ago, Horace Mann[1] in a report concerning reading methods employed in our schools brought out the fact that a child often took six months to learn the names of 26 letters of the alphabet while the same child could learn the names of 26 playmates or playthings in one or two days. Many teachers have met boys who are unable to learn 26 words in a semester but who can learn the names of 26 leading baseball players in a day.

Recent studies have thrown serious doubt upon the value of oversimplified textbooks. At present there is debate among educators upon the extent of vocabulary control which should be practiced. Some maintain there should be no limitation in vocabulary. More often the position is taken that there must be some control of vocabulary, but that control in many basic readers has been too drastic because repetition has been gained at the expense of ideas. Hunnicut and Iverson[2] point out the great need of research in this area to help resolve the problem.

[1] Horace Mann, "Methods of Teaching Young Children on Their First Entering School," *The Common School Journal*, William B. Fowle and N. Capen, Boston, Apr. 1, 1844, p. 117.

[2] C. W. Hunnicut and William J. Iverson (eds.), *Research in the Three R's*, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York, 1958, pp. 68–70.

Fred C. Bryan,[3] in a study of children's vocabularies, concludes that children in grades two through six know at least 10,000 words. Seashore and Smith[4] found a vocabulary increase of approximately 5,000 words per grade. Reading textbooks, on the average, assume that a child can learn about 500 words the first year and from 1,500 to 2,500 by the end of the third year.

The reading process itself at the primary level is largely association of word sounds which a child already knows with visual word forms. A child entering school understands many words. He has a large hearing vocabulary. The extent of this vocabulary is dependent upon his social and cultural background. The number of words a child knows when he enters first grade had been estimated previously at about 2,500. Later studies, however, tend to show that this figure is a gross underestimation.

Too often reading instruction reduces a speaking vocabulary and affects the good habits of oral expression a child has gained. A young child has been taught to express himself in complete sentences. But some oversimplified preprimers have broken down this skill through the use of single words or phrases in an attempt to ensure repetition, rather than building up the reading material to a child's oral language level. In the past, vocabulary building has depended much more upon repetition than upon meaningful experiences with concepts.

A rich meaningful vocabulary is an asset at any grade level. Bernard,[5] in a study made with college students, found that the correlation was higher between students' vocabulary scores and their grade-point averages than between their reading ability in general and their grade-point averages. He found also, in working with two groups of students, that gain made in vocabulary build-

[3] Fred E. Bryan, "How Large Are Children's Vocabularies?" in Oscar S. Causey (ed.), *The Reading Teacher's Reader*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1958, pp. 217–221.

[4] "How Many Words Do Children Know?" *The Packet*, Service Bulletin for Elementary Teachers, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, November, 1947.

[5] Harold W. Bernard, "An Experience in Vocabulary Building," *School and Society*, June 7, 1941, pp. 742–743.

ing was more than twice as much for those students exerting effort toward the goal than for the group not required to participate in vocabulary building program.

Most educators agree that vocabulary building must be a consciously developed program—it cannot be left to chance. A teacher must help a pupil gain a wide background of experience and associate these experiences with appropriate visual symbols. She must show him how to use these experiences and visual associations that he has gained to enrich his experience and increase his vocabulary further.

How a Pupil Builds Vocabulary

A child entering school usually has two vocabularies—a hearing vocabulary and a speaking vocabulary. His hearing vocabulary is extensive; he understands a great many words. His speaking vocabulary is smaller. Most children who enter school are able to express themselves in clear direct sentences. Many of them use complex sentence structure. The fact that a child's hearing vocabulary is far more extensive than his speaking vocabulary is evidenced at times by his inability to speak as rapidly as he thinks. This condition sometimes results in stuttering. It is especially common among children in kindergarten and early primary grades. In these cases, when the oral language facility of a child is increased, stuttering disappears.

A reading vocabulary is not attained by a majority of children until they have begun their formal education. One task of a beginning reading teacher becomes that of teaching a child visual symbols that correspond with auditory symbols, or words a child already knows. During the primary period a teacher attempts to bring reading vocabulary up to the level of hearing vocabulary. In the middle grades a transition begins. A child's skill in reading enables him to increase his reading vocabulary further through vicarious experiences. Gradually his reading vocabulary becomes more extensive

than his speaking vocabulary. An adult comprehends a far greater number of words visually than he uses in speaking.

Word recognition involves both recognition of a visual symbol and an understanding and appreciation of the meaning that the symbol conveys in the context in which it appears. This means that a child must learn to recognize a symbol, understand the various meanings the word may have, and appreciate the fine shadings of meaning that the context may give to the word. A good word recognition program must provide for development of each of these phases. There is no value in having a child skillful in recognizing a printed symbol if he has no knowledge of its meaning. On the other hand, knowledge of meaning alone will not enable a child to recognize a word. A sequential program in word recognition rich in meaningful experiences must be provided.

WAYS BY WHICH A CHILD LEARNS TO RECOGNIZE SYMBOLS

Recognition of words and understanding and appreciating the meanings of these words cannot and should not be separated in an actual reading program. For discussion purposes, however, it is necessary to present these aspects of the program singly. Ways by which a child learns to recognize a symbol will be discussed first.

One of the first major instructional tasks in teaching beginning reading is to assist a child to recognize rapidly the words he is asked to read. This must be done in several ways because of the structure of our language. Some English words are phonetic and can be recognized through sound analytic procedures; others are nonphonetic and must be recognized by sight as a whole word. The word *of*, for example, cannot be sounded out. A reader either knows it or he does not know it. For this reason, a successful word study program must include instruction in several methods of attack—sight, phonic and structural analysis, and context.

Knowledge of words enables a child to center attention upon meaning. He reads with understanding and enjoyment. A wise teacher plans a word recognition program with a realization that

knowledge of words is a means to an end and takes great care to be sure it does not become an end in itself. Interest, understanding, and enjoyment, together with proficiency in reading skills, make a successful reader.

Each of the several methods of word attack are discussed here. In a classroom they are developed and used simultaneously as the need arises. For purposes of clarification each procedure is discussed separately.

Sight recognition or visual-auditory method of word attack. The method used in teaching words is usually a visual-auditory method. A word is presented with a picture depicting its meaning or in a meaningful setting and is pronounced by a teacher. A child observes the configuration or shape of the word as he hears the pronunciation. Since the word is already in his hearing and speaking vocabularies, he attaches meaning to the visual symbol. Each time he reads the word, he observes its form, says the word, and associates meaning with it. He identifies it again and again in different contexts until he is able to recognize it instantly in any reading material.

Recognition of words by context clues. Recognition of words through use of picture association and context clues is another method by which a good reader identifies words. In beginning reading a child is taught to find clues in pictures accompanying a story. Pictures in preprimers are planned to give clues to new words. They carry the action of a story pictorially while the words below it tell it verbally. A discussion of the picture brings out the context. For example, in the picture below the new words to be introduced are *the* and *house*. A teacher helps the children interpret the picture to get the new words from context, or picture illustration, through questions such as these:

What does Boots see?
Do you think he will run into the dollhouse?
How does Boots run?
Does Tippy run fast?
Do you think Tippy will catch Boots before he gets into the house?
Do you think Tippy will hurt Boots, or are they just playing?
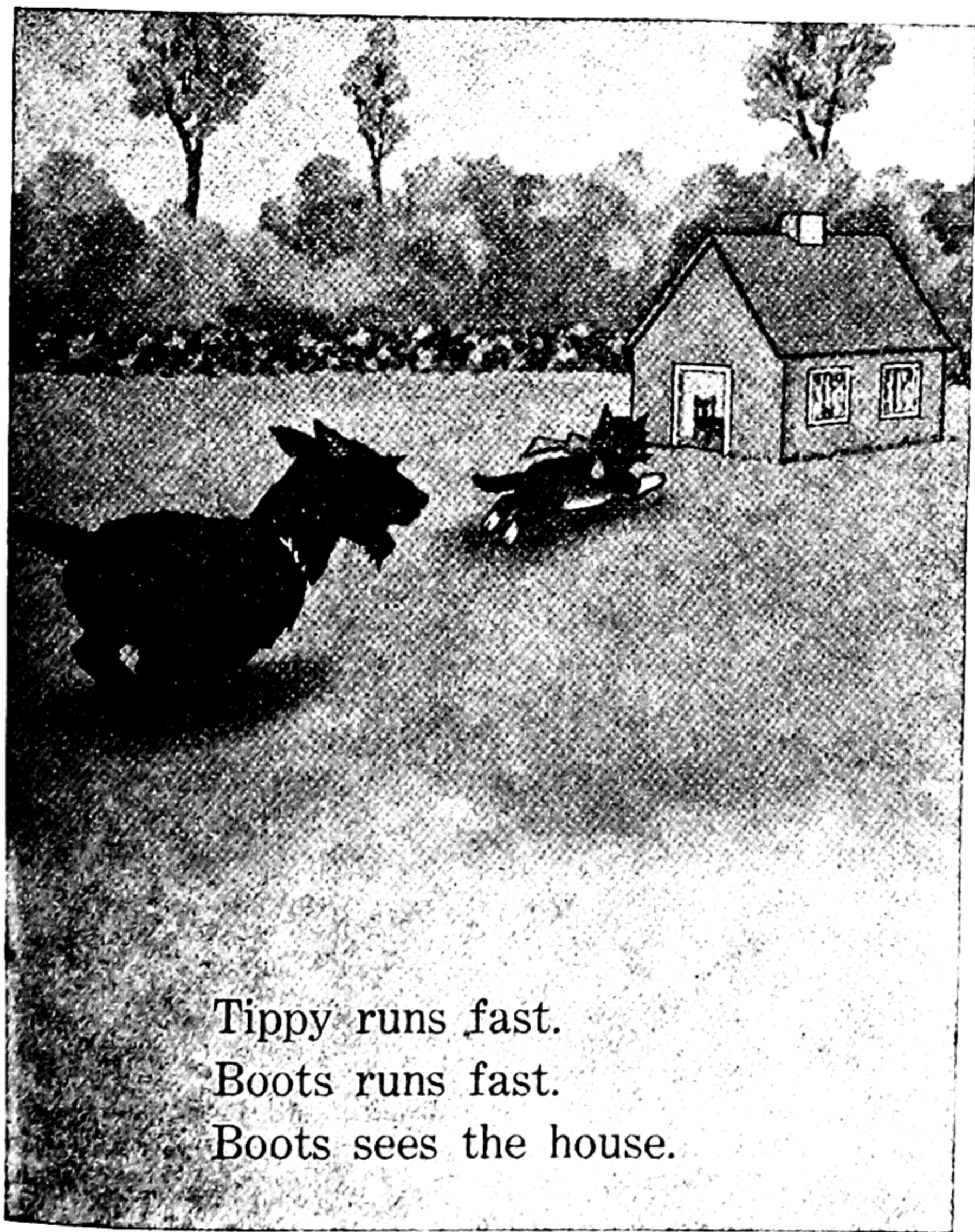
Tippy runs fast.
Boots runs fast.
Boots sees the house.

Using picture clues for word recognition

When the children are aware of what is happening and are eager to read the story, the teacher builds the sentences making up the story, writing them on a wall chart or on a chalkboard in manuscript. Several children read them orally. Then all of the children find matching sentences in their books and read them silently. Perhaps two children will take the parts of Boots and Tippy and act out the story while another child reads it orally.

Verbal context clues are used as an aid in word recognition as soon as children are able to recognize words in sentences. A child is taught to read to the end of a sentence to see if he can get an unknown word from the meaning of a whole sentence. For example, if a child did not recognize the word *cake* in the sentence below, it would be easy to guess if he read to the end of the sentence.

Mother baked a big_____ for Nancy's birthday.

Recognizing words through context is a permanently useful aid in reading. It is a word recognition technique widely used by adults and a valuable tool so long as there are not too many unknown words. A child must be taught to guess intelligently. If he reads to the end of a sentence, meaning is likely to be revealed. Systematic guidance is necessary to help him learn this important technique for recognizing words.

Recognition of words through analysis. Phonic and structural analysis of words are other important methods used in recognition of unknown words. As a child's basic sight vocabulary increases, errors may creep in if he depends upon configuration alone. Many words have a similar configuration. Also, he cannot always recognize a word from context. A good reader sometimes needs to work out analytically the pronunciation of unknown words which he cannot recognize by their shape or deduce from the meaning of a sentence. Words such as *umbrella* and *birthday* are readily recognized by configuration clues. The words *house* and *horse* present a more difficult problem. Contextual clues would not help a reader either in differentiating the two words in the following sentence.

The man bought a _____ . (*house, horse*)

Here it would be necessary to use word analysis techniques in addition to contextual clues.

PHONIC ANALYSIS. In phonic analysis a child uses the sounds of letters or letter combinations. The new word *book*, for example, might be recognized because it begins like *boy, ball,* and *boat,* which a child already knows, and rhymes with *look*. Thus a child thinks the sounds and pronounces the new word *book*. Considerable mental maturity coupled with a great deal of work in phonic readiness is necessary before a child is able to apply this technique. One little first-grader attempted to apply it to the new word *big* in a book she was reading at home. When her mother asked her what the word was, she replied, "I don't know, but it begins with *boat*." She had recognized the similarity in the beginnings of the two words.

Phonic analysis is valuable when other word-recognition techniques fail. It is a much slower procedure than recognition through configuration or context. Anderson reports a study by Cattell in which it was demonstrated that "the average adult reader could, in 10 milliseconds of exposure time, apprehend equally well three or four unrelated letters, two unrelated words (up to about 12 letters) or a short sentence of four words (or approximately 24 letters, if in words)."[6] The experiment proved that when we read by meaningful word units we apprehend five or six times as much in a given time as when we read by letters. Letters and letter sounds lack associative meanings. Moreover, phonics can be applied only to words that can be sounded out, and many English words are nonphonetic.

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS. In structural analysis a word is recognized by its basic structure. Word endings, such as *s, ed, ing, er, est, en,* prefixes and suffixes, compound words, and syllables are recognized as such in structural analysis. A reader who is proficient in this skill recognizes immediately a basic word together with other component parts from which the word is made. The word *dairyman,* for example, may be quickly identified by recognition of the words *dairy*

[6] Irving H. Anderson, "The Psychology of Learning to Read," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin,* December, 1947, pp. 33–37.

and *man; reappeared* by recognition of the prefix *re* meaning again, the root word *appear*, and the ending *ed*. This is an important technique that may be used in recognition of polysyllabic words and words that are composed of two or more parts.

The aim of a good word recognition program should be to provide a reader with skill in various techniques. Sufficient practice in meaningful situations should be provided to enable him to become proficient in application of these techniques. He should know how and when to use each one. Care should be taken that a child does not become overdependent on any one of the skills, but that he is versatile in the use of all of them.

WAYS BY WHICH WORDS BECOME MEANINGFUL

One of the most important jobs of a teacher is to help a child develop a rich meaningful vocabulary that will enable him to interpret adequately and accurately the concepts that he reads. There are four stages of development through which he must be guided.

Gaining rich experiences. First, a wide background of experience must be provided and it must be relevant to the word symbols that a child will encounter. Words are symbols; they convey no meaning in and of themselves. The meaning the reader gains from a printed symbol is dependent upon his own experience. When a pupil reads he attempts to interpret the experiences of a writer, and to do this he must have relevant experiences. If the child's experience is meager, the meaning conceived by him may be inadequate or entirely false. An example of this occurred in one second grade.

The pupils read a story about some children playing in the snow. Then the teacher showed them a picture of children playing in a snow fort they had built. The children were dressed in summer clothes. When the teacher asked the group what was wrong with the picture, no one responded. Upon further inquiry she discovered that not one of the pupils knew that snow was cold. They were associating the symbol with their own experiences in playing in the sand at the beach near their homes.

Associating experiences with appropriate symbols. This is the

second step. In the beginning a child usually attaches a single meaning to a word symbol. *Bed*, for example, is a place where he sleeps. The concept is limited. One seven-year-old defined a nightgown as "something you put on quick when there is a fire at night before you jump out of the window." Too often a teacher assumes that a child has associated the correct experience with a symbol when in reality he has very hazy notions about it. A fifth-grader was asked to tell what *cooperation* meant and replied, "That's one of them words the teacher is always using but never tells us." Too frequently a child attaches an entirely erroneous concept to a symbol. The writer, in administering Stanford-Binet Intelligence Tests, has listened to these definitions:

Lecture:
> a place where they kill people
> a whole bunch of money
> where a guy gets shot

Repose:
> when a man asks a girl to marry him and she refuses it, he reposes again
> to pose for an act.

Skill:
> to do something real bad and get away with it
> means you just put it over
> something to cook scrambled eggs in

Juggler:
> one who plays a jug
> a man who goes around with a jug with something to drink
> he holds jokers
> something you can put things in

Scorch:
> to put a match to someone's hair
> if you let your clothes scorch they get too little for you

Muzzle:
> a round thing that runs
> a kind of game
> something you wear when you go down in the ocean

Haste:
> something like rolled oats

Tap:
　　to hit someone with a shoe or hammer
Priceless:
　　means the price is up on stocks

Is it any wonder a child becomes confused when he makes such faulty associations? Every effort must be made to help him associate the correct experience with the appropriate symbol.

Understanding several meanings and shades of meaning. The third step is to help the child widen the precise understanding of a word in one setting to include the vivid, accurate understanding of a word in its several meanings. *Bed,* for example, is no longer just "a thing to sleep on" but may mean also a garden plot for plants, the bottom of a river or sea, a layer of oysters, or a number of other things. An appreciation of idiomatic expressions is gained. "To lie in the bed one has made" is not interpreted literally but is recognized as an expression meaning to take the consequences of one's acts.

Using known concepts to gain further experiences. Fourth, the pupil needs to be helped to use past experiences and known word symbols as a means to enrich further his experience and vocabulary. He learns to use the concepts he has gained through wide reading, television, conversation, and other vicarious experiences. His curiosity about words is fostered. Situations in which a child feels a real need to express himself more adequately provide a teacher with opportunities for direct instruction in vocabulary. An insight is gained into ways of learning the meaning of a new word in its context.

If interpretation to its fullest extent and appreciation of the fine shadings of word meanings are to be gained, a well-planned sequential program that meets the needs and interests of all the children at different levels of maturity must be provided by the school. The building of concepts and the development of a rich meaningful vocabulary is a never-ending task that needs to be continued throughout life. It is the responsibility of an elementary teacher to spark interest and to provide a child with the means to pursue this activity.

Sequential Development of a Word-Recognition Program Including Phonics Instruction

There is rather general agreement on the steps that lead to independence in word recognition. A suggested sequential program, resulting from a study of present practices, is given here. It must be remembered that in the preparation of these learnings the levels for which a skill is suggested are reader levels. Reader levels are not necessarily grade levels because a child may be able to read only a preprimer although he is in third grade. In such a case preprimer competence is expected, not that of third grade.

All learnings must be carried on in meaningful situations. Word-recognition techniques are useful only for deriving word meanings met in context. Letter sounds should be associated with the proper visual symbols in meaningful words. Isolated or artificial drill tends to emphasize overly analytic techniques. It causes a reader to attack a new word in a set and rigid way. Children should approach new words with a diversity of techniques that will enable them to comprehend the meaning as well as to recognize the form of a symbol.

PREREADING LEVEL

I. Meaning clues
  A. Ability to associate spoken words with meaningful concepts
    1. Naming common objects
    2. Using oral commands
    3. Dramatizing stories
II. Visual clues
  A. Ability to see likenesses and differences
    1. Concrete or real objects
    2. Semiconcrete objects—pictures

    3. Semiabstract objects—geometric forms (balls, circles, boxes, lines)

    4. Abstract or word forms

  B. Ability to associate ideas with pictures

  C. The ability to associate ideas with symbols—for example, with the label SCIENCE CORNER on a table where the children keep their science exhibits

III. Auditory clues

  A. Ability to detect likenesses and differences in spoken words

    1. Listening games

    2. Rhyming games

    3. Choral speaking with nursery rhymes and jingles

    4. Identification and reproduction of common sounds such as the barking of a dog, the ticking of a clock

    5. Naming objects starting with common sounds such as are indicated by the letters *m, p, b, w, wh, f, v, t, d, th, s, sh, ch, j, k, g, l, r, pl, br, bl, fr, fl, tr, dr, thr, n, h, sn, st, sl, cr, cl, gl, gr, qu*

PREPRIMER LEVEL

 I. Meaning clues

  A. Thinking meanings of words presented visually or aurally

  B. Identifying spoken words with their related meanings

II. Visual clues

  A. Extension and application of prereading skills

  B. Differentiating and pronouncing words that differ in the endings *s, ed, ing,* as *looks, looked, looking*

III. Auditory clues

  A. Extension and application of beginning readiness skills

  B. Ability to detect likenesses and differences in spoken words that are alike or different in initial, medial, or final sounds, as *go* and *no, his* and *has, fall* and *for*

  C. Ability to identify rhyming words

PRIMER LEVEL

 I. Meaning clues

  A. Associating words with their meanings

  B. Recognizing the form and meaning of printed symbols

    1. Sight recognition clues

    2. Contextual clues

   3. Picture clues
   4. Phonic and structural clues
II. Visual clues
   A. Recognizing likenesses of words beginning with capital letters and those beginning with lower-case letters
   B. Noting likenesses and differences in word forms
      1. Identifying the variant endings s, ed, d, ing, in known words
      2. Identifying stems in known variant words ending in s, ed, d, ing, as barks, barked, barking
III. Auditory clues
   A. Recognizing in spoken words certain familiar sounds in beginning, medial, and final positions, as m in my, humming, and come
   B. Mastery of pronunciation of sounds occurring in reading material of this level
      1. Choral-speaking exercises
      2. Listening activities
   C. Hearing likenesses and differences in spoken words
      1. Selecting rhyming words and completing rhymes
      2. Selecting words that begin with the same sound, such as mother, make, and me

First Reader Level

Understanding and using all skills of preprimer and primer levels
I. Meaning clues
   A. Recognizing form and meaning of words
      1. Sight recognition
      2. Picture concepts
      3. Sentence and paragraph concepts
      4. Phonic and structural clues
II. Visual clues
   A. Recognizing likenesses and differences in word forms
      1. Recognizing variant endings s, ed, ing, d, es
      2. Recognizing root words, as stand in standing, stands
      3. Recognizing known words in new compound words, as black and berry to make blackberry
      4. Identifying new words in known compound words (For example, a child knows the word gingerbread and the word bread. Thus he identifies the new word ginger.)
      5. Identifying new words by substituting initial or final sounds—

for example, substituting *m* in *house* to make *mouse*, final *t* in *ran* to make *rat*

III. Auditory clues
  A. Identifying initial consonant sounds and certain final consonant sounds in known words
  B. Mastery of pronunciation of sounds occurring in the reading material of this level through rhythmic verse, conversation, and games
  C. Hearing likenesses and differences in spoken words
    1. Identifying words that rhyme
    2. Selecting words that begin with the same sound, as *d, t, th,* (voiced as in *then,* unvoiced as in *thin*)
    3. Associating appropriate sounds with symbols

SECOND READER LEVELS

Understanding and using all skills of previous levels
I. Meaning clues
  A. Recognizing the form and meaning of words
    1. Sight recognition
    2. Picture clues
    3. Sentence and paragraph contextual clues
    4. Finding of opposites
    5. Associating words of related meanings, such as *bread* and *butter, soap* and *water*
    6. Phonic and structural clues
  B. Recognizing and interpreting different meanings for a word in accordance with context, as *saw* meaning a tool, or *saw* meaning to see
  C. Recognizing and interpreting words in context that are spelled differently but sound the same, as *reins* and *rains*
II. Visual clues
  A. Noting likenesses and differences in word forms
    1. Recognizing common variants
    2. Recognizing root words
    3. Recognizing certain contractions such as *I'm, we're, it's, I'll, can't, won't, isn't, don't, didn't, we'll*
    4. Recognizing known words in new compound words
    5. Recognizing new words in known compound words
    6. Recognizing small words that are pronunciation units in large words, as *thank* in *thankful*

    B. Understanding the change in meaning a word undergoes when the comparative *er* or *est* is added to it, as *tall, taller, tallest*

III. Auditory clues

    A. Hearing likenesses and differences in spoken words

        1. Recognizing and selecting rhyming words

        2. Recognizing and identifying initial consonants

        3. Recognizing and identifying final consonants, as *d, f, g, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t*

        4. Recognizing consonant blends, as *fr, br, bl, cl, sp, sw, qu, gr, tr, gl, pl, st, sk, sl*

        5. Recognizing the speech sounds *ch, sh, wh, th*

    B. Building new words by adding or substituting initial and final consonants, consonant digraphs, and consonant blends

    C. Recognizing different sounds of the ending *ed*, as sounded in *wanted* and *looked*

    D. Recognizing long and short vowels in one-syllable words

    E. Understanding the principle of final silent *e* in one-syllable words, such as *hat* and *hate, can* and *cane*

    F. Recognizing the principle of a silent vowel in certain diphthongs such as *ai, ea, ay* (When two vowels come together in a word, the first vowel usually is long and the second vowel is silent. "When two vowels go a-walking, the first one usually does all the talking.")

    G. Hearing the number of syllables a word contains; understanding that each syllable represents a change in position of the mouth

IV. Dictionary skills

    A. Alphabetizing by a single letter

THIRD READER LEVEL

Maintaining and extending skills learned in preceding levels

I. Meaning clues

    A. Using context clues to check accuracy of word-analysis techniques

    B. Recognizing and using common synonyms and antonyms

    C. Recognizing words that convey related meanings such as *meat, vegetable, fruit* (foods) and *heel, toe, finger* (parts of the body)

II. Visual clues

    A. Recognizing pronunciation units in new words, as *prove* in *improvement*

    B. Recognizing form and meaning of new words composed of known words with the endings *y, ly, er, est*

    C. Recognizing the form and meaning of the common prefixes oc-

curring in the reading material of this level, as *un* (not) in *unhappy*; *re* (again) in *rewrite*; *dis* (opposite of or not) in *dishonest*

D. Recognizing form and meaning of common suffixes occurring in reading material of this level, as *er* (one who) in *farmer*; *ful* (full of) in *careful*; *less* (without) in *careless*

E. Discriminating between vowels and consonants

F. Discovering silent letters in a word, as *w* in *write*, *b* in *climb*

G. Understanding and using a hyphen in dividing compound words, as *home-sick* for *homesick*

H. Building and interpreting words made through addition, substitution, or omission of letters, as *got* and *goat*, *steam* and *stem*, *bull* and *bell*

I. Recognizing and using contractions

III. Auditory clues

A. Discovering that different letters may have the same sound, such as the *f* sound for *ph* in telephone

B. Recognizing hard and soft *c* and hard and soft *g* sounds; discovering that *c* is usually sounded like *s* (soft) when it is followed by *e*, *i*, or *y*, as in *cent*, *city*, and *bicycle* (otherwise it is hard); discovering that *g* is usually sounded like *j* when it is followed by *e*, *i*, or *y*, as in *George*, *ginger*, *gypsy* (otherwise it is hard)

C. Discovering that when *ing* is added to a word ending in silent *e*, the *e* is usually dropped, as in *take* and *taking*

D. Auditory recognition of one-, two-, and three-syllable words; understanding what a syllable is

IV. Dictionary skills

A. Alphabetizing by one and two letters

FOURTH READER LEVEL

Maintaining and extending skills learned in previous levels

I. Meaning clues

A. Using context clues to check the accuracy of word analysis techniques

B. Using contextual clues and picture clues for recognition of form and meaning of new words

C. Understanding the terms and using synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms

D. Recognizing and interpreting figurative and idiomatic expressions,

such as "to separate the sheep from the goats" meaning "to separate the good from the wicked"

II. Visual clues
  A. Using structural clues in recognizing form and meaning of new words
    1. Recognizing component parts of compound words
    2. Recognizing root words
    3. Recognizing common prefixes and suffixes
    4. Recognizing variants—possessives; plurals; comparatives with *er* and *est*, such as *wisest*; verbs; adverbs with *ly* and *y* such as *slowly*; nouns such as *agency* and with *er*, such as *worker*
    5. Identifying *ed* as a separate syllable when added to a word ending in *d* or *t*, as *wanted*
  B. Formulating rules for adding suffixes
    1. When a word ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, *y* is usually changed to *i* when adding endings such as *es*, *ful*, *some*.
    2. Words ending with silent *e* usually retain the *e* before suffixes which begin with a consonant.
    3. Words ending with silent *e* usually drop the *e* before suffixes that begin with a vowel, as *come* and *coming*, *love* and *loved*.
    4. Words ending with one consonant preceded by a single vowel usually double the consonant before adding *ing*, as *run* and *running*.
  C. Formulating rules for dividing words into syllables
    1. Every syllable contains a vowel or a vowel sound; there are as many syllables in a word as there are vowel sounds, as *ran* (1), *came* (1), *breakers* (2), *balsam* (2).
    2. When two consonants come between two vowels, a syllable division is usually made between the consonants, as *mes-sage* and *blos-som*.
    3. When one consonant comes between two vowels, the consonant is usually joined to the second vowel to begin the syllable, as *wea-ri-some*.
    4. When two vowels come together and each one keeps its own sound they form separate syllables, as *pi-o-neer*.

III. Auditory clues
  A. Using phonic clues in recognizing form and meaning of new words
    1. Using correct speech patterns in sounds of vowels, diphthongs, digraphs, consonants, and consonant blends
  B. Associating correct letter sounds with visual symbols

C. Recognizing that different letters or letter combinations may represent the same sound, as *ph* and *f*
D. Recognizing variant sounds of a letter or letters such as *gh* in *thought, cough, enough, ghost*
E. Recognizing long, short, and silent vowels in a word
F. Perceiving accurately word endings
G. Formulating rules for pronunciation of vowels in a word
   1. In a short word or syllable containing only one vowel followed by a consonant, the vowel is usually short, as *man.*
   2. If two vowel letters are together in a word or syllable, the first vowel usually has its own long sound and the second vowel is silent.
   3. In a short word or final syllable ending in *e*, the *e* is usually silent and the first vowel has its own long sound.

IV. Dictionary skills
   A. Alphabetizing by two or three letters
   B. Learning differences between a glossary and a dictionary
   C. Selecting definitions to fit context
   D. Using guide words
   E. Understanding and using a pronunciation key
   F. Understanding and using diacritical markings
   G. Using phonetic spelling as an aid to pronunciation
   H. Recognizing accented and unaccented syllables

FIFTH READER LEVEL

Maintaining and extending skills learned in previous levels
I. Meaning clues
   A. Identifying meanings from contextual and picture clues
   B. Selecting a word to fit a group of definitions; for example, finding a word that means (1) the family from which a person descends, (2) a part of a thing which serves as its support, (3) farm animals, (4) a supply of goods kept by a merchant, and (5) an old instrument of torture   (answer: *stock*)
   C. Recognition of words and phrases with related meanings, such as brave words, airplane words, phrases that tell when or where, picture phrases, sound phrases
   D. Interpretation of figurative and idiomatic expressions
   E. Selecting an appropriate meaning to fit context
   F. Using experience backgrounds for developing concepts
   G. Checking all word analyses with context to determine if they are meaningful

II. Visual clues
  A. Understanding that a root word can be seen and heard in a derivative, as *relentless, relenting,* and *unrelenting*
  B. Understanding that a root word is a thought unit in a word
  C. Formulating and using rules for dividing words into syllables
    1. Apply all rules previously formulated.
    2. If the suffix *er* is added to a one-syllable word, it forms a separate syllable, as farm*er*.
    3. The endings *less, ment, cion, sion* usually form separate syllables.
    4. Words which end in *le* after a consonant usually include the consonant in the last syllable, such as *ta-ble*.
  D. Formulating generalizations for placing an accent
    1. In a word of two or three syllables usually the first syllable is accented (unless the first syllable is a prefix) as *den'-tist, gi'ant.*
    2. In words containing prefixes or suffixes, the root word is usually accented, as *pro-nounce'*.
    3. If a word ends in *tion, sion,* or *cion,* the accent usually falls on the next to the last syllable, as *pre-cau'-tion.*
    4. Longer words may have, besides a primary accent, a secondary accent, as *ex-am'-i-na'-tion.*
    5. A primary accent usually falls upon the root or stem of a word, as *mi'gra-to'-ry.*
III. Auditory clues
  A. Using phonic clues in recognizing form and meaning of new words; increased auditory perception of sounds and their association with written symbols
  B. Detecting common errors of pronunciation
    1. Careless pronunciation (*pitcher* for *picture*)
    2. Incorrect vowel quality (*pore* for *poor*)
    3. Incorrect consonants (*w'ich* for *which*)
    4. Misplaced accents (*ad'-dress* for *ad-dress'*)
    5. Addition of one or more extra sounds (*onct* for *once*)
    6. Omission of an important sound (*libary* for *library*)
    7. Sounding of a silent letter (*often* for *of'en*)
    8. Uttering sounds in improper order (*childern* for *children*)
  C. Formulating and using rules for pronunciation of vowels in a word
    1. Apply all rules previously formulated.
    2. If there is only one vowel letter in a word or syllable, the

vowel usually has its short sound unless it comes at the end of the word or at the end of a syllable; for example, *mĕt, mē, tā-ble.*

3. When the only vowel in a word or syllable is followed by *r,* the sound of the vowel is usually changed by the *r;* for example, *girl, hurry.*

4. Any vowel followed by *r, l,* or *w* has a modified sound; for example, *hard, maker, fall, law.*

5. Final *y* in words of more than one syllable usually has the sound of short *i;* for example, *sleepy, happy.*

IV. Dictionary skills
    A. Alphabetizing by any number of letters
    B. Using and extending skills of the fourth reader level

Sixth Reader Level

I. Meaning clues
    A. Using an increased number of synonyms for overworked words such as *pretty, cute*
    B. Using words made vivid by sound associations, such as in
        We heard the bells *ringing.*
        We heard the bells *tinkling.*
    C. Using words made vivid by visual or other sensory associations, such as
        the river's shining rim
        a crumpled body, red and small
    D. Understanding changes in meaning that a root or stem undergoes when a prefix or suffix is added
    E. Ability to work out meanings of words that are derivatives of common Latin or Greek roots, such as *geography,* from the Greek root *ge* meaning *earth,* and *grapho* meaning *to write*

III. Structural clues
    A. Using structural clues in recognizing form and meaning of new words
        1. Using and extending the skills of the fifth reader level
        2. Formulating and using rules such as the following to determine when a letter is silent:
        gh is usually silent after a single vowel sound (*light*)
        g is usually silent before *m* and *n* (*gnat, phlegm*)
        b is usually silent after *m* (*lamb*)
        k is usually silent before *n* (*knit*)

b is usually silent before *t* (*doubt*)

w is usually silent before *r* (*wrong*)

B. Formulating and using rules for dividing words into syllables
  1. Applying all rules previously formulated
  2. Recognition of the fact that *ed* added to a word becomes a separate syllable when a word is used as an adjective, such as in

  > He was a *learn'ed* man.

C. Formulating generalizations for placing an accent
  1. Words which have a prefix usually do not have a primary accent on the first syllable, as *dis'-ap-pear'*.
  2. Words are usually accented on the root or stem of a word, as *de-sir'-able*.
  3. In two-syllable words that end in *y* preceded by a consonant, the final *y* usually has a short sound and is not accented, as *hap'-py*.
  4. Recognize that there may be a shift in accent when the same word is used as two different parts of speech, as in

  > The pupils bought a new *record* for the victrola. (noun)
  > Did the teacher *record* the test grades? (verb)

  5. Understand that these rules are only general tendencies for accent placement and that in case of doubt a dictionary must be used.

III. Auditory clues
  A. Formulating and using rules for pronunciation of vowels in a word
    1. Applying all rules previously formulated
    2. An understanding that *y* is a vowel when there is no other vowel in a word or syllable, as *try, candy*
  B. Using phonic clues in recognizing form and meaning of new words
    1. Using and extending skills of fifth reader level
    2. Increased skill in recognizing different sounds of letters or letter combinations, as *gh* in *night, enough,* and *ghost*
    3. Increased awareness of common errors in pronunciation

IV. Dictionary skills
  A. Understanding functions of and using a glossary, index, and dictionary
    1. Using and extending skills of fifth reader level
    2. Understanding and interpreting markings that tell the part of speech of a word

3. Understanding and interpreting markings that tell the language from which a word comes
4. Understanding that where the addition of a suffix does not change the meaning of a word appreciably it is entered as a run-on entry, but where the addition of a prefix or suffix changes the meaning of a root it is given a special entry; for example, *unhappy* is not given a special entry, but *dislocate* is given a special entry
5. Understanding that dictionaries do not enter inflectional forms unless the form is irregular or the meaning is changed from the meaning of the root; for example, *skating* is not given a special entry, but *rode* is entered separately as the past tense of *ride*

Activities for Development of Word-Recognition Skills

The first requisite for acquisition of an extensive vocabulary is a strong desire to have one. A child must be eager to learn; his curiosity about words must be aroused. The words he learns should be an outgrowth of language arts. Speaking, listening, reading, and writing should be organized into a program that will contribute to his growth patterns. A study of words should fulfill a real need. It should not be a mechanical procedure.

Recognition of printed symbols should always be accompanied by knowledge of meanings. Activities to stress word recognition should be used after children have had an opportunity to read and understand a thought unit of which the words are a part. After a word has been presented in a meaningful context a teacher may find it necessary to present it for conscious study. Some pupils fail to recognize words because they react passively toward them instead of actively and vigorously. Just as many adults have performed certain actions daily without conscious thought, such as climbing a certain stairway without knowing the number of steps in it, so many

children have met words daily with no more awareness of their forms. Word recognition requires attention, active response, and analytical study.

To have children attend and respond actively, there must be real interest on their part. Special devices, games, and challenging exercises are used successfully to sharpen interest and attention. Since a good reader has command of all methods of word recognition, several suggested activities are included for each method. The alert teacher will think of many more interesting and educative activities.

ACTIVITIES TO INCREASE SKILL IN SIGHT RECOGNITION OF WORDS

A point of emphasis previously brought out was that beginning readers should be taught to recognize at sight certain nonphonetic words to free them to center attention upon the meaning of a story. In the later grades children must have instant command of service words, such as *is, are, here, saw, was, who, there.* Many intermediate pupils have difficulty in reading because of failure to identify these words thoroughly.

LEFT-TO-RIGHT OBSERVATION. Accurate visual perception is fostered through learning to attend to a whole word first and later to details. Much confusion in word recognition arises from a lack of knowledge of how to examine a word. Children are accustomed to examine a picture or an object from any point and proceed in any direction. It is not natural for a child to observe a word in a consistent left-to-right direction. Activities for developing skill in the use of configuration as a word-recognition clue should include exercises to stress this left-to-right directional attack. They should also provide opportunities to note differences in length, height, and up-and-down characteristics of words.

Tracing exercises are valuable to help children learn left-to-right procedure in observing a word.

Write some sentences in large dotted-line manuscript. Let the children read the sentences as a whole first to comprehend the meaning. Then have them trace each one, first with their fingers, then with their pencils

or crayons. Have them do what each sentence tells them to do to fulfill the instructions.

Tachistoscopic devices. A tachistoscope affords an excellent opportunity for practice on important sight words in an interesting and effective manner.

Let each child choose a picture that appeals to him. If a child likes airplanes, let him draw or bring in a picture of an airplane. Mount it on oaktag or cardboard. Cut two horizontal slits 2 inches long and ⅜ of an inch apart. Type the words to be learned on strips of oaktag 2 inches wide. Insert the strip through the slits. Pull it through as a child says the words.

Words used on a list should come from those that are difficult for children. A list of such words should be kept by the children or teacher until there are a sufficient number for a game.

Smooth rhythmical reading is the result of quick recognition, perception, and comprehension of words. Skill in reading by thought units may be fostered through the use of tachistoscopic devices. They are especially helpful in giving children an understanding and skill in reading these units. It is advisable to begin with a short unit and increase the span of perception as the children are able to do so. An excellent game for mastering this skill is "The Talking Indian" (see illustration on page 157).

Tell the children that to be a good reader one must be able to read a whole phrase with just one look. Thread a list of phrases through the dotted lines. Have a child look quickly at each group of words as it appears. Can he read each group with just one look? Let him practice until he can. Make other phrase cards too.

OTHER GAMES. Another game that affords practice in quick recognition of words is "Word MatchO."

Select 24 difficult words from the children's reading activities. Print or type them on a card (see page 158). Make two cards for each child. Be sure that the words are arranged in different order on each card. Cut the words apart on the second card and put these words into an envelope. Fasten the envelope to the first card with a paper clip. When playing the game, children take words from the envelope and

is ended

in battle

all things

out of food

do not think

the young man

by his friends

you are willing

it fell rattling

we shall determine

old age hesitates

they were marching

was soon overtaken

he has been here

to get here alive

from far and near

he was always kind
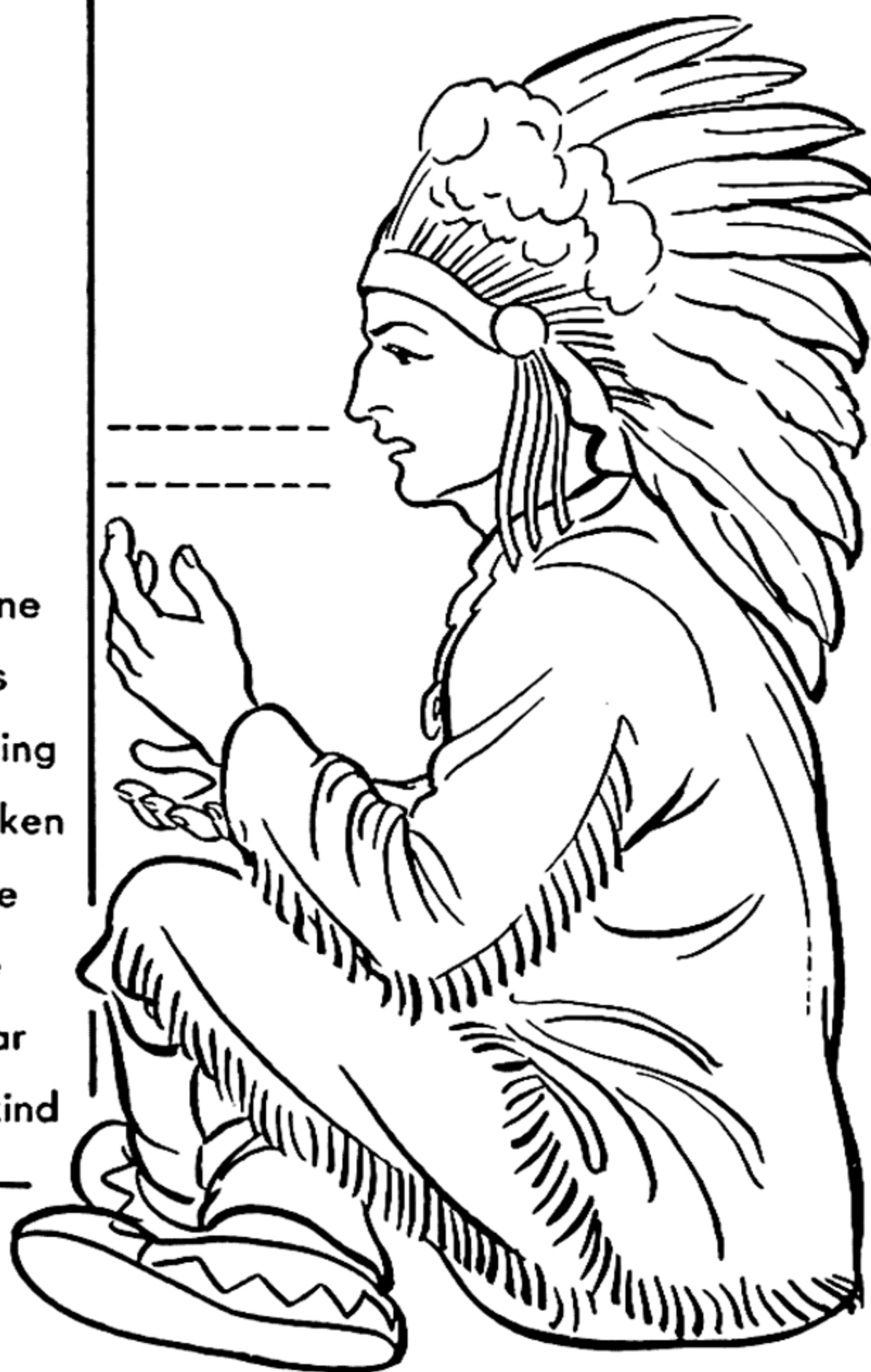
"The Talking Indian"

turn them face up on a table. One child who is leader calls a word. Each child finds the word and places it over the word it matches on his card. The space named "Word MatchO" is free and may be covered before beginning a game. A child who first covers a complete row wins the game. He is permitted to be leader the next time the game is played.

here	saw	when	there	thought
now	through	stop	with	was
left	spot	WORD MATCHO FREE	here	felt
think	still	came	snow	call
blow	how	won	ball	who
here	now	left	think	blow
saw	through	spot	still	how
when	stop	FREE	came	won
there	with	here	snow	ball
thought	was	felt	call	who

Word Matcho

Older children may make their own cards. This affords extra practice in learning words.

One of the most popular quick sight recognition games for all levels is the "Fishing Game." This can be adapted for use with words or phrases.

Have the pupils find pictures of different kinds of fish, cut them out, and mount them on white paper. Then write on the back of each fish words or phrases that have been troublesome. Next have the pupils prepare a big box for a pond, make a fishing pole and tie a small magnet on the end of a line. Have them put a paper clip on the mouth of each fish. After the fish have been placed in the pond, the pupils take turns fishing. If a pupil cannot read a word or phrase on the back of a fish he catches, read it to him and have him throw the fish back into the pond. Add new words or phrases after they have been presented.

ACTIVITIES TO INCREASE SKILL IN USING CONTEXT CLUES

Picture context clues. The ability to use clues afforded by illustration is of great importance. Reading pictures helps to ensure adequate working concepts. Basic readers provide opportunities to teach this skill. They contain good illustrations at all elementary levels. Many content-subject textbooks, particularly at middle-grade level, are rich in pictorial clues also.

Too often a teacher merely admonishes the children to look at or to study an illustration. This is not practical without definite development of the skill under teacher guidance. Studies indicate that pupils lack the ability to use pictures in interpreting new words. Efficient usage of pictorial context clues places emphasis upon reading for meaning.

PUZZLES. These can be used successfully in development of the ability to use context clues.

Have children cut pictures from old magazines or workbooks. Then make up sentences to go with the pictures. Using as many envelopes as there are pupils, place in each one some stories with matching pictures. Distribute the envelopes. Have each pupil read his stories, select a picture that illustrates each, and place it on top of the story it matches. For example, the following story and picture go together:

She went to see her grandmother.
She met a wolf on the way.

(Picture of Red Riding Hood)

PICTURE STORIES.   Another interesting activity in the development of word recognition and meaning is that in which a child completes a sentence by means of an illustration. Questions or statements should be used that are based upon a particular story children have read. Words to be illustrated should be those a teacher wishes to develop. For example, if the children have read stories about the early development of our country, a teacher may check upon the meanings of certain words through exercises such as these in which the directions to the child are adjusted to his reading level:

Lewis and Clark built a fort near the _____ of the Columbia River.
                                                          (mouth)

The _____ traveled down the river in a canoe.   (explorer)

Draw pictures for words that have been left out. Look at the word at the right to help you know what to draw.

These picture stories are interesting and provide a lot of fun for children.

CHARADES.   Charades is a game that assists the children in associating meaning with an oral symbol. It may be played by a group or by only two children.

Divide a group into two teams. One team chooses a word, then acts out its meaning. The other team tries to guess what the word is. When a word is guessed correctly, the other side takes a turn. Words that can be used should be decided upon previous to presentations. They should be selected from the children's reading. For example, *ruin* might be depicted by drawing a picture and then scribbling over it or crumpling it up; *disappear* by holding something up, then quickly putting it out of sight.

PICTURE ILLUSTRATIONS.   To make sure that pupils understand and can associate the meanings of new words with the symbols, write a story with the new words on a chalkboard. Have pupils copy it and draw a picture to illustrate each word that is underscored.

Pecky was a little *chicken*. She made a *crack* in the egg. Then she stretched her *feet*. Ruth took her out of the *incubator*. A hawk tried to get her. Ruth's *dog* jumped at the bird.

A PICTURE HUNT. Give pupils who need practice in using picture clues an opportunity to study the illustrations in a story. Write on the chalkboard the new words to be studied and have each word pronounced. Have pupils find in a picture each of the things named and let them write the word and page number of the picture where the object is found. Then have them show the picture and tell the word and what it means. For example, in the story about Robin Hood,[7] write on the board the following words:

potter's cloak	beard	dame	cart
archer	cowl	sheriff	forester
tunic	pots	abbot	horn

Verbal context clues. The importance of recognizing words through context clues as a permanent skill in reading has been discussed in a previous section. It has the advantage of placing comprehension first. Children make an intelligent guess by reading a whole section or paragraph, then thinking what a word might be from the meaning of the selection. In instructing children in the use of this skill, reading should be directed so that a new word can be anticipated. The broader the children's experiences, the more accurately they will be able to do this. Care should be taken that not more than one new word appears in approximately one hundred running words. If too many unknown words appear, children will not be able to guess intelligently and the result will be careless habits of word recognition. It is possible for a child to depend so largely upon context that he makes little or no attempt to develop other means of word recognition. For example, in the sentence below, children's chances for guessing the right words are almost nil.

If the _____ reading is high, it _____ fair _____ .

If children have had science experiences, and recognize all but

[7] Yoakam, Hester, and Abney, "Some Jolly Adventures of Robin Hood," *The World Around Us,* Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, pp. 60–83.

one word, however, possibilities for intelligent reading are greatly increased:

> If the _____ reading is high, it indicates fair weather.

This skill requires definite instruction. McKee[8] states that an average fourth-grade child can use content successfully to unlock the meaning of a new word in only one out of three opportunities. It has been found that children gain little if any skill in using this important tool without specific help.

The following activities are typical of some that are helpful in enabling a child to learn to use verbal context clues.

RIDDLES. To give understanding and practice in recognizing the vocabulary in new context, riddles using new words may be composed by a teacher or by the children.

> Write in manuscript the following simple riddle:

> They are on a tree.
> They turn red and yellow in the fall.
> Then they fall off.
> What are they?

Also write the words *fire, leaves,* and *look.* Ask pupils to read the riddle silently and then volunteer to give the answer. Then have an individual read the riddle orally, find the word that tells the answer, and frame it. After several pupils have answered this riddle, write another riddle and continue this exercise.

COMPLETION EXERCISES. Completion exercises may be used to give pupils added facility in using context clues.

Write on the blackboard the following part sentences and the words listed below them:

1. There are many trees in the _____ .
2. An Indian likes to _____ in the woods .
3. An Indian lives in a _____ .
4. He has a bow and _____ .
5. Little Bow wanted to be a _____ hunter like his father.
6. He wanted to _____ a bear.

---

[8] Paul McKee, *The Teaching of Reading,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1948, p. 74.

7. Do you think little Bow will get _____ ?
8. What do you think _____?

happened	woods	great	lost
kill	wigwam	hunt	arrows

Have each pupil copy the number of the part-sentence on a piece of paper. Beside the number have him write the word from the list of words that will complete the sentence correctly. Then have each pupil read aloud one or more of the completed sentences.

ADJECTIVE STORIES. Awareness of the importance of interpreting accurately the context clues may be increased through having pupils participate in the following activity.

Write on a chalkboard the following story. Leave blanks as indicated and have pupils select and write a descriptive word in each blank. When they have completed their stories, have stories read aloud so that pupils may be aware of the way descriptive words add to the meaning or change the meaning of a story.

One _____ day a _____ boy went shopping with his _____ mother. He saw a _____ train that he wanted very much. His _____ mother did not buy it for him because she was a _____ woman. After a while they went home to their _____ supper. The next morning the _____ boy woke up early. He ran downstairs. He was a _____ boy.

Each child may make up a story for the other children to complete.

ACTIVITIES TO INCREASE SKILL IN PHONIC AND STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

A good reader has at his command knowledge of how to work out the form and meaning of new words that he cannot recognize by configuration or context. A good word analysis program will develop principles and understandings that are applicable in many situations. It will provide skill in techniques that will be permanently useful. Instruction will give prominence to the sound and structure of words as a whole. Children will be taught to test each word for meaning that they work out, putting it back into context to see that "it makes sense."

There are certain precautions that should be taken in developing a word-analysis program. Word analysis should not be started until children can recognize at sight 50 to 100 words. This vocabulary forms a basis for the development of important and functional principles.

Principles that have resulted from understandings and discovery of relationships should be used. Children themselves should formulate rules after they have had sufficient experience to be able to discover relationships. They may discover, for example, that the letter *c* usually has the hard sound of *k* except when it is followed by *e*, *i* or *y*. They will formulate this principle after they have become conscious of the fact that *c* has different sounds. Then they collect words that contain the letter *c* and list in one column those that have a *k* sound and in a second column those that have an *s* sound. They soon discover the principle. Rules gained in this way are functional and afford permanent learnings. Rules that are stated by a teacher for children to learn are given lip service and soon forgotten.

Letter sounds should be taught as an integral part of a word rather than in isolation. The sound a letter has is dependent in most cases upon the letters with which it is associated. According to Betts,[9] there are but eight consonants that have only one sound. The others have variant sounds depending upon other letters in the word. If, for example, children had learned the sound of *gh* as *f*, it would work in analyzing the word *cough*, but they would have difficulty with *though* and *ghost*.

Teaching of phonograms and word families is seldom of permanent value. It is a mechanical approach that works in some one-syllable words, such as *at* in *cat, hat, mat*. Phonograms will not hold in polysyllabic words, however, because a syllable usually begins with a consonant and a syllable division frequently cuts through a phonogram, as *baton, tomato*.

Indiscriminate finding of little words within big words is danger-

[9] E. A. Betts, *Foundations of Reading Instruction*, American Book Company, New York, 1946, p. 634.

ous. Many times a student is led astray through an attempt to analyze a word in this way. *Some* might become *so, me. Is* and *her* might be picked out of *fisherman.* Children would be hindered rather than helped in their pronunciation of a new word. It is far more efficient to teach perception of a root word in a big word. Then there will be a clue to the form and meaning of the new word. For example, in the word *transport*, recognition of the root *port*, meaning to carry, and of the prefix *trans*, meaning across, will afford a clue to the pronunciation as well as to meaning.

A few activities that will be helpful in developing skill in word analysis are given here.

Phonic analysis.

SUBSTITUTION PRINCIPLE. A first step in becoming proficient in unlocking new words by the substitution technique is to learn sounds of letters within words. The letter to be learned will arise from new words in a story. For example, if the new word *jumped* is introduced, give pupils practice in identifying the *j* sound at the beginning of words.

Write the letter *j* in both small and capital letter forms on a chalkboard. Below *j* write *jumped* and have the pupils suggest other words that begin with the sound of *j*. As pupils pronounce a word, write it under the correct form of *j*. Be sure that pupils are aware that each form of the letter stands for the same sound.

GUESSING GAMES. Practice in identifying sounds in any position may be had by playing games such as "Riddley, Riddley, Ree."

The children decide upon a consonant to use. Encourage them to use those with which they have difficulty. One child begins the game by saying,

Riddley, riddley, ree,
I see something you don't see.
And it begins with *t*. (or any desired consonant)

For practicing consonants in a middle position, the child substitutes in the last line,

And it has in it a *t*. (or any desired consonant)
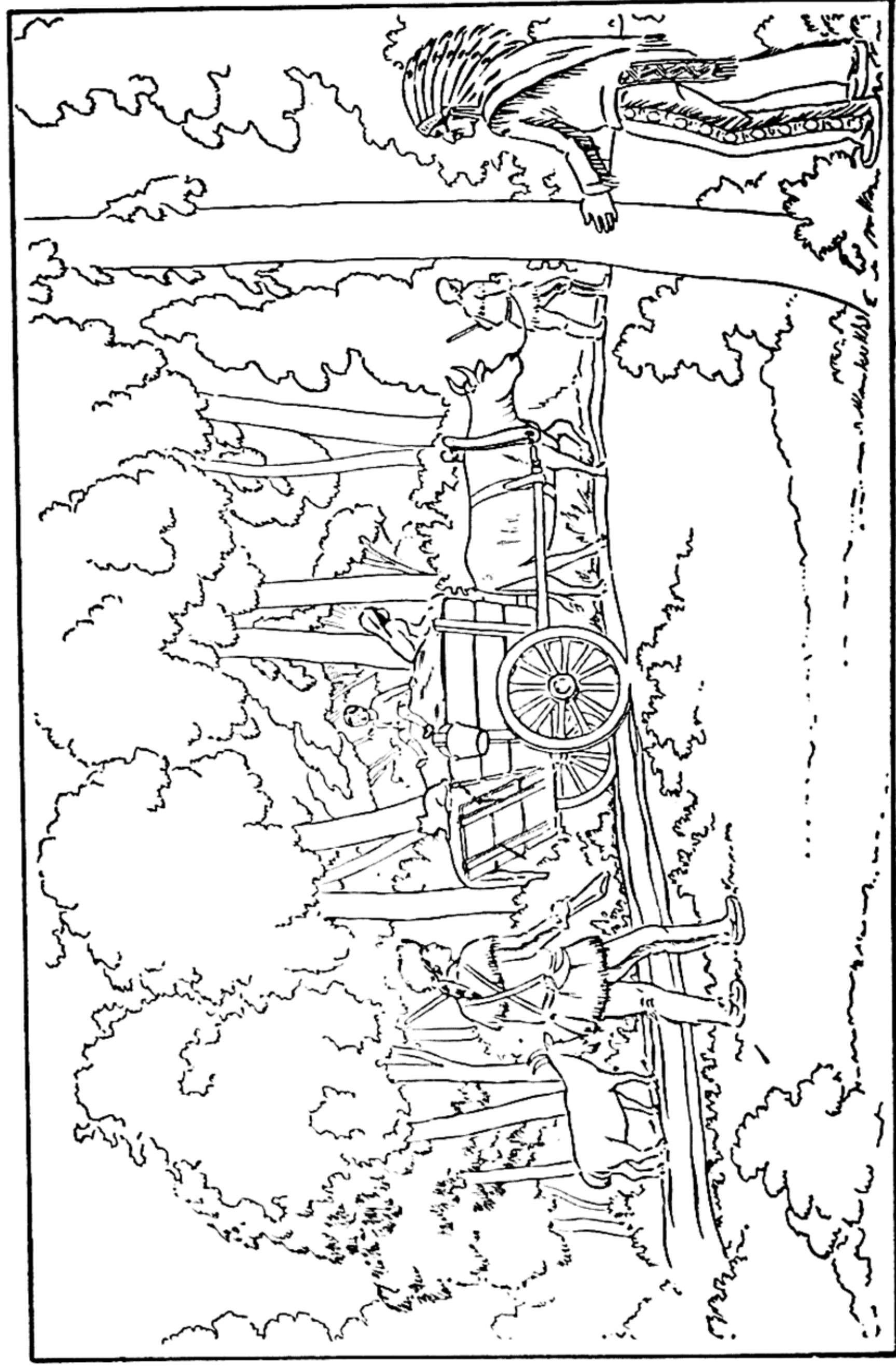
Picture puzzles

Exercises to Develop Recognition of Letter Sounds. (Reprinted from Yoakam, Hester, and Abney, *The Workbook to Accompany Children Everywhere*, 1955, p. 9, by permission of Laidlaw Brothers.)

For practicing consonants in final positions, he substitutes,

And it ends with g. (or any desired consonant)

The other children try to guess what it is. Words guessed may be written on a chalkboard as children say them to increase visual as well as auditory associations.

PICTURE PUZZLES. These help increase auditory and visual perception of letter sounds.

Let each child choose a consonant or consonant sound, such as *ch*. Have him draw a picture, putting into it as many things containing the sound as possible. The letters may occur in the initial, middle, or final part of a word. For example, if a child has chosen *ch*, a picture might include a chicken, children, a church, a porch, cheese, checkers, a bench, an orchard, a cherry tree. When all pictures are finished, let each child show his picture to the group and tell the letter or letters he has chosen. The others guess orally or write on a slip of paper names of things they can see in the picture that contain the sound.

Picture puzzles with directions such as the following are used successfully also (see the picture puzzle page 166):

Indian hunters saw everything around them. Try to see as many things in the pictures as an Indian would. Find and color all things whose names end with the letter *t*. If you find eight things, you are a good hunter.[10]

RHYMING GAMES. A child must be able to recognize similarities in word endings. Rhyming games will develop this skill.

Write on a chalkboard the word *bed* and have a pupil read it. If he succeeds, let him select a pupil to say a word that rhymes with *bed*. Write this word below *bed*, and, as you read the pair of words orally, have pupils tell which parts of the words are alike and draw lines under the similar parts. Continue this game and use such words as *will, going, we, trick, wet*.

PHONIC BASEBALL. This is an interesting activity to give added practice in recognizing similarities in beginning sounds.

[10] Yoakam, Hester, and Abney, *The Workbook to Accompany Children Everywhere*, Laidlaw Basic Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, p. 9.

On a chalkboard draw a baseball diamond and write a word on each base. To make a home run, a pupil must say a word that has the same initial sound as the word on each base. If a pupil misses, he is out. Later on, when pupils have had more practice, have them choose teams and play the game. Three outs bring the other team to bat.

This game may be changed to give practice in recognition of similarities in word endings.

On a chalkboard write words such as *make, red, play,* and *ball* on the bases of a baseball diamond. To make a home run, a pupil must say a word that rhymes with the word on each base. If he misses, he is out.

SUBSTITUTION RIDDLES. When the children recognize similarities in word beginnings and word endings, they unlock a new word by recognizing that it begins like a known word and is similar in ending to another known word. Then they mentally substitute known sounds to get the new word and use the new word in a sentence to see if it "makes sense." Riddles may well be used to help children develop facility in substituting.

On a chalkboard write the words introduced in a story, for example, *sill, sound,* and *pile.* Then tell pupils you know a word that begins like *say* and ends like *round* and that you want them to guess what it is from the words on the board. A pupil should find, frame, and read aloud the word *sound* on the chalkboard. Then give them other riddles, such as, "I know a word that begins like *say* and ends like *will.* What is it?"

VOWEL PICTURES. To help pupils of intermediate grades gain facility in recognition of vowels and in interpretation of vowel markings, have them make vowel pictures.

Have each pupil select a story that he likes best. Then have him draw a large picture to illustrate as much of the story as he can include in the picture. When all pictures have been completed, have pupils exchange them and have each pupil make a list of the things he sees in the picture. Then have each pupil mark the vowel in each word with correct diacritical marking.

"DOUBLE OR NOT." Principles that are concerned with development of understandings should be evolved. A principle of this type is that which enables children to know when to double a consonant

before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel. For example, pupils are frequently confused in writing words such as *running* and *skipping*.

Write in one column words that the children have met in their reading, such as *skimming, swimming, patted, wagged, hopping,* and *skipping.* In another column write *sketching, jumping, building, shouting, joining,* and *hunted.* Have pupils find the stem of each word, then underline the endings. Pupils should observe that in the first column the final consonant of the stem word is doubled, while in the second column *ing* or *ed* is added to a stem without any change in the stem. Then help the pupils formulate the rule that when *ing* or *ed* is added to a word which ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the last consonant is usually doubled before an ending is added; but that if a word ends in silent *e*, as in hope, normally the *e* is dropped before adding *ing*, and *d* is added instead of *ed*.

Structural analysis.

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES. A study of prefixes and suffixes will help the children to recognize the basic structure of a word. After a child has learned to detect common elements in words, and is able to combine them, he will enjoy discovering new words for himself and finding ways in which words are built. Clues to word meaning, along with ability to recognize longer words, may be gained through a study of prefixes and suffixes. Lists of common prefixes and suffixes are available. Armstrong[11] gives a list of those most commonly used.

Durrell[12] presents a list of root words, prefixes, and suffixes which occur in intermediate grades with sufficient frequency to be worthy of being taught. Stauffer[13] has made a study of prefixes and suffixes found in the Thorndike list. As a result he presents a minimum list that can be taught to advantage.

Prefixes and suffixes to be taught should originate from a child's reading. The meaning of each word part should be developed.

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[11] William H. Armstrong, *Study is Hard Work*, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York, 1956, pp. 42–45.

[12] Donald D. Durrell, *Improving Reading Instruction*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York, pp. 265–266.

[13] Russell G. Stauffer, "A Study of Prefixes in the Thorndike List to Establish a List of Prefixes That Should Be Taught in the Elementary School," *Journal of Educational Research*, February, 1942, pp. 453–458.

Exploratory games may be played. If a child reads about a subway, it will be interesting for him to know that the prefix *sub* means under, after, or near, and by combining *sub* with *way* he has a word which means traveling under ground. After this he explores his book for words having the prefix *sub*. These he lists in his notebook. He tries to work out the meaning of each in a similar fashion, writing his definition beside each word. When he has finished he may check his definitions with those given in a dictionary. This exercise affords splendid dictionary practice also.

WORD DOMINOES. An interesting game in word building which affords practice in use of prefixes, suffixes, and compound words is "Word Dominoes." It is played just as a regular domino game is played.

Select a list of words from children's reading materials that contain prefixes, suffixes, and difficult compound words. Type one part of a word on one card. Type the other part on a second card, so that when the two cards are placed together they will make a word. Cards are placed face down on a table. Each child draws the required number of dominoes, from four to seven, determined by the number of players. The remainder of dominoes are put to one side. One player leads by putting down one domino. The next child must

Word Dominoes

put down a domino that completes a word. Cards may be played from either end. If a child is unable to complete a word, he must draw another domino from the pile. A child who lays down his last domino calls, "Domino." The other players count how many cards they have in their hands. The total number held by all other players is the score given to the winner. A game may be won by 50, 75,

or 100 points. If a game is blocked, the child holding the fewest dominoes wins. His score is the difference between the number of dominoes he holds and the number held by the one with the most dominoes. The game will provide many new combinations of word parts. New words will be built. In the case of questionable words, a player who makes one must prove it is a real word in a dictionary. In this way children's vocabularies are increased in a meaningful way.

ROOT WORDS. To help children gain facility in recognition of form and meaning of a root word within a larger word, let them make "word flowers." Directions might be as follows:

Karl's mother had a beautiful garden of lovely flowers. Can you make a pretty garden, too? In each box a root has been planted. Below is a list of some words that grow from these roots. Put these words on the plants to which they belong. One is done for you. See if you can find more words that come from these roots. Make another flower for each word. Color the flower around the word.

Choose any five words you have made. Use each one in a sentence. Be sure your sentence shows that you know the meaning of the word.

Words for Flowers

| certainly | happily | encourage | unhappy |
| discouraged | certainty | uncertain | happiest |
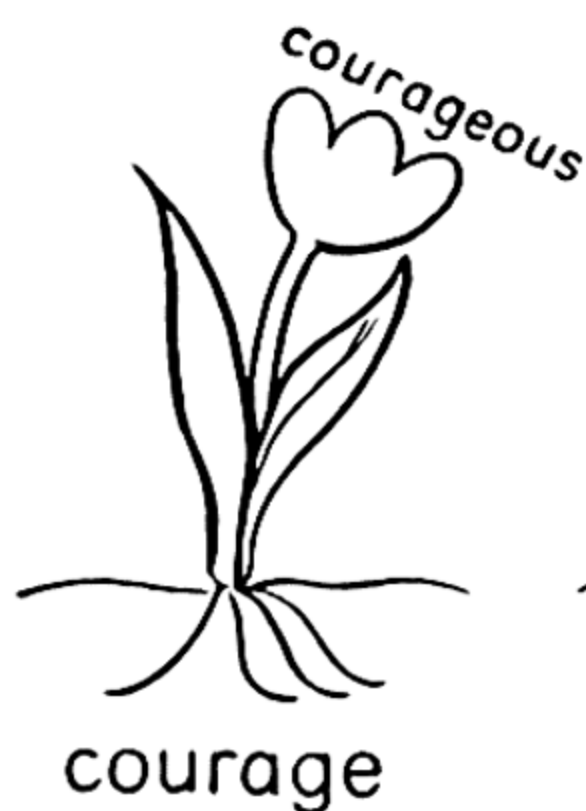
Word flowers

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN DICTIONARY USAGE

Independence in word recognition requires skill in the use of a dictionary when necessary. Skills that are essential for efficient use of a dictionary have been listed in a previous section.

A RHYMING DICTIONARY. This is an interesting and functional activity that helps develop dictionary skills.

Choose words from children's reading lessons. For example, if *fell* and *coat* have been introduced, give each pupil two sheets of paper with *fell* written in large manuscript on one sheet and *coat* on the other. Have pupils read each word and suggest words that rhyme with them. On a chalkboard make a list of words suggested, such as *fell, well, bell; coat, boat, goat.* Then have the pupils find in old magazines, cut out, and paste on the appropriate sheet of paper pictures of objects whose names rhyme with *fell* or *coat.* When each project is completed, have pupils show their pictures to the group and name objects pictured. From time to time have them make more pages of rhyming words. Help pupils arrange pages in alphabetic order.

INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT THE ALPHABET. Interest in alphabetical arrangement may be fostered with older children by letting them make a collection of facts about the alphabet. The facts listed below may be found in children's reference books.

Did you ever wonder how we happened to have an alphabet? Do you know why it is called an alphabet? The word *alphabet* came to us from Greece. It is the first two Greek letters, *alpha* and *beta.* They were put together to make the word *alphabet.*

Do you know that the order of letters is almost the same in every language—*a, b, c?* How this came to be no one seems to know.

You know there are 26 letters in our alphabet, but the Greek alphabet has only 24. And if you were a Russian boy or girl you would need to know 32 letters.

Do you know there are more sounds than there are letters in the alphabet? There are also some letters we would not need. The letter *c* always sounds like *k* or *s.*

There are so many different ways we can arrange letters of the alphabet that if all the people in the world wrote forty pages a day with forty

different sets of letters on each page, it would take over a billion years to finish.

Do you know there are sentences that contain all the letters of the alphabet? One is, "The quick, sly fox jumped over the lazy brown dog."

FUN WITH A GLOSSARY. An understanding of the parts of a glossary and skill in the use of its parts facilitates dictionary work. Practice may be had through the use of exercises such as "Exploring the Glossary."

We find many interesting things when we travel. There are many interesting things at home, too. Have you traveled all through your book? If you have, you will have found an interesting part called *Glossary*. Take a trip through it to see if you can find answers to these questions:

1. Are the words in alphabetical order?
2. Does it tell how to pronounce each word?
3. Do you see a mark above each vowel? Look in the *Key to Pronunciation*. You can find the same mark for each vowel. If you listen how a vowel sounds in the key, you can tell how to say it in a new word.
4. Do you see a little mark like this (') in some words? That is called an accent mark. It tells us on which syllable to put the most force when we say a word.
5. Does a glossary tell you what a word means?
6. Do you see two words at the top of a page? They are called *Guide Words*. Where do you find the first guide word? Where do you find the second guide word? All words that come in alphabetical order between those two words will be on that page.

WORD TRAVELERS. Familiarity with markings used in the dictionary is an essential part of every child's learning if he is to be skillful in the use of a dictionary. The game of "Word Travelers" helps a child to understand the derivation of a word. Directions to the children are as follows:

How many word travelers do you know? Your dictionary will help you to find more. Remember how to tell from what country a word has traveled to us. The capital letter (F.) after a word means it comes from France; (Sp.) from Spain; (G.) from Germany; (It.) from Italy. Write words you find under the names of countries from which they come.

Write a short story about one word from each country. Perhaps you will want to illustrate your story.

SECRET MESSAGES. Understanding and using diacritical markings affords children great pleasure when markings are used to write secret messages, such as in the following exercise.

Saved by a secret message! If you were captured by Indians could you send a secret message? Here is one way to write a secret message. Use the sound spelling instead of the regular spelling and use the diacritical markings for each word. Sound spelling is the way words are spelled in a dictionary and diacritical markings are little marks over letters. They tell you how to say words. You will always find sound spelling with the markings right after a word. For example, *uneasy* would be *un ez' y*. See if you can read this secret message. If you can you will have a big surprise. Say each word. Write the correct spelling of the word under it. Then do what the message tells.

Dhĭ In' dĭans plăn tŏŏ at tăck' Tūz' dā ăt sŭn sĕt. Dhā

---

hăv à bout' thrē hun' dred brāvz red' i fôr dhĭ wawr păth.

Dhâr kamp iz too hun' dred mīlz nôrth ov our fôrt. Tāk dhĭ

ār' plān and kum kwik' li.

The children can write other messages to their friends. Then those who receive them can rewrite them in regular spelling.

ACTIVITIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF WORD MEANING

The meaning of a word grows out of the personal experiences of a child. This fact was discussed previously. To develop a rich meaningful vocabulary children must be guided through several stages of development.

First stage of development. In the first stage, words acquire meaning by being associated with objects, situations, and experiences. A wealth of experiences must be provided if the concepts which the symbols represent are to be understood. Many times

children are able to pronounce words which convey little or no word meaning to them. This is especially true in textbook reading by intermediate-grade children. To improve their power to read with adequate understanding they should be given many and varied experiences. When first-hand experiences are not available, visual materials, such as moving pictures, filmstrips, slides, pictures, and charts, may be used successfully. Language-arts activities that require effective listening and speaking, such as participation in conversation, dramatics, storytelling, and reports, afford valuable ways of providing experiences to make symbols meaningful.

Descriptions of several activities which are used successfully for this stage of development are given here.

EXCURSIONS. Community resources should be utilized to the fullest extent.

Make a list of the points of interest in the community that will contribute to pupils' understandings of concepts to be developed. Plan with the pupils the places to be visited. Many first-grade children may need to visit a farm. In sixth grade a trip to a newspaper plant may be a profitable excursion. Discuss the things they might see. List on a chalkboard things to be seen and questions the children want answered as they are suggested. Let each child be responsible for bringing back information about one thing listed or an answer to one question. Complete the plans for the trip; be sure it is planned so that it will be a well-organized learning situation instead of "a day-off."

After the trip have the children give their reports and discuss what they have seen. In the early primary grades, let the children dictate their experiences to you as you write them in manuscript on a chalkboard. Guide the discussion so that the sentences are short and simple. Then write the story in manuscript on a large sheet of paper and read it to the children. Display it where they can refer to it at frequent intervals. A thank-you letter to the person in charge of a place visited should be composed and sent by the children.

VISUAL AIDS. Filmstrips, moving pictures, slides, pictures, charts, and other materials have great value in the development of word

meaning and difficult concepts. Many teachers have not availed themselves of splendid opportunities to use materials in this field. They may have overlooked the power of visual aids to provide experiences to make symbols meaningful. Textfilms that correlate with basic readers have proved to be very valuable. McCracken[14] made a study of the achievement of 37 classes using a basic reading program with correlated textfilms. The findings showed exceptional achievement, particularly for the first year of instruction. Data indicate norms 40 percent higher than national norms.[15] Many other studies also have shown the value of sensory aids. A further discussion of the use of sensory aids in teaching reading is found in Chapter 22.

Second stage of development. In the second stage of development a pupil associates experiences with appropriate symbols. When he sees a word he will recall past experiences which have been in any way associated with it. A concept will be built from all experiences with a word and attached to a symbol. The following descriptions of selected activities suggest types of approaches to the problem.

PICTURE DICTIONARY. A picture dictionary is a device that is very valuable for establishing relationships between experiences and words in primary grades. It is valuable also for preparatory training in the use of a dictionary and in formulation of independent habits of study. When children have a dictionary to which they can refer when they are unable to recognize a word, they learn to work independently rather than to rely on a teacher to too great an extent.

In constructing a dictionary, include every word as it is introduced, and write each word on the chalkboard. Let the children tell stories to develop all the meanings for the word that are suitable to be introduced at that time. Illustrate the word with a picture for each meaning developed. Take 26 sheets of paper and print or type a letter of the alphabet on each. Be sure to include both capital and lower-case forms, as

[14] Glenn McCracken, "The New Castle Reading Experiment," *Elementary English Journal,* LIV, 1954, p. 385.
[15] Glenn McCracken, "The Value of the Correlated Visual Image," *The Reading Teacher,* XIII, 1959, pp. 29–33.

A, a. Put each new word and picture on the proper page. Additional pages for each letter may be added as needed. Below the word write a story dictated by children, illustrating its use. If the word is a noun, it is easy to depict. Verbs should be shown in several ways to clarify meaning. If the word is *eat,* show a child eating, a dog or cat eating, and perhaps a bird eating so that the concept *eat* is established. Words such as *here, there,* and *is* will have their meanings established through sentences accompanying the word and picture, in known context. The word *flies,* for example, might be depicted as shown below.

F f

flies

The bird flies in the air.
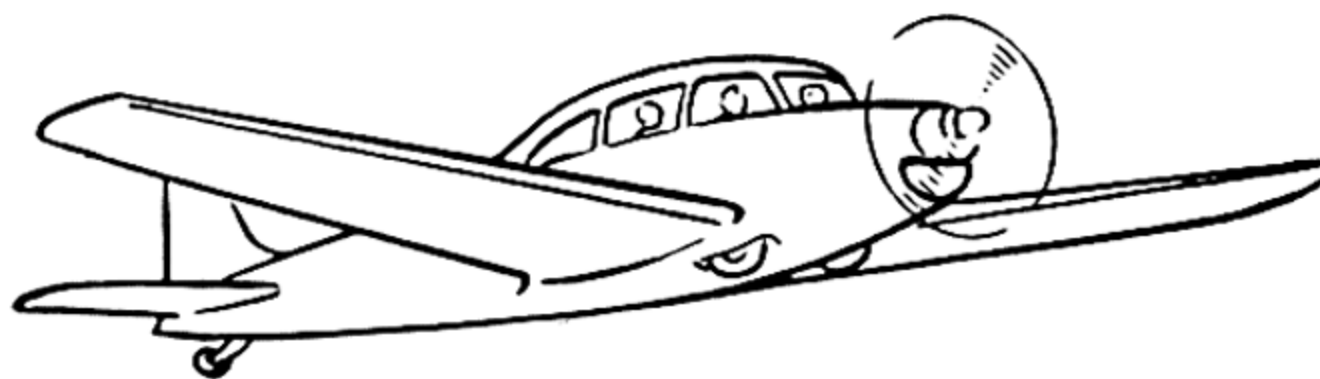
flies

The airplane flies in the air.

Picture dictionary

WORD PICTURE HUNT.   This activity is used very successfully for helping children learn to use pictures to clarify difficult concepts in subject-matter areas.

Let children study a picture in a story. Write a word or phrase on a chalkboard. Tell them to look quickly at the picture to find what you have written. Then let someone read the phrase, show it in the picture, and tell what it means. Continue the game with other words and phrases to be developed.

ELECTRIC QUESTIONER.   An electric question board appeals to children and can be used in many ways to help them enlarge their vocabularies. The children can make practical application of their knowledge of electricity by constructing the board.

Take a large board. Paste pictures of the words to be developed on one half of the board and words on the other half. For example, if children have been studying about birds, paste bird pictures on one half of the board and bird names on the other half. Put a screw under each bird picture and beside each bird name. Now connect each bird picture to its name with a piece of insulated wire. Wires are connected from screw to screw on the back of the board. Connect a long piece of wire to a buzzer or light. Wire should be long enough to reach any of the screws under the bird pictures. Connect a wire from the buzzer or light to a dry battery. Connect a shorter wire to the other pole of the dry cell.

Now the electric questioner is ready to use. If you want to find out what a nuthatch looks like, put the short wire on the screw beside the name *nuthatch*. Now with the long wire touch screws under bird pictures. When you touch the right screw, the buzzer will buzz or the light will go on.

Third stage of development.   Ability to understand the precise meanings of words is the third stage. Learning new meanings of old words is an important phase of this stage. As a pupil acquires efficiency in using language, meanings should be enlarged, enriched, and made more definite. Fine shades of meaning should be understood and appreciated. A teacher needs to plan a variety of activities which will provide opportunities for oral language expression and listening. These activities must be suited to the needs of the group and the individuals in the group. Concepts for abstract words should

be developed. They should be discussed by the class, and definitions should be formulated by the children. Wide reading should be encouraged to allow the children to gain an appreciation and understanding of the depth and vividness of word meanings. Since evidence from studies demonstrates the value of the direct teaching of word meanings, interesting and challenging activities of this type should be provided. A few are suggested here.

INTERESTING WORDS. To help the children appreciate the way in which writers choose the right words, and to bring out the fact that the thought behind a word frequently gives it meaning, let them select a group of words and explore their meanings.

Tell the children to head three columns on their papers with the following titles:

Shining Words   Dull Words   Echo Words

Explain to them that it is as important for writers to choose right words as it is for weavers of beautiful cloth to choose right threads. There are shining words like silver and gold threads, and there are dull words like darker threads. *Shimmer* and *glisten* and *sparkle* are words that shine; *gray* and *dingy* and *gloomy* are words that are dull. Some words echo the sounds that they make. Let the children listen to the sounds of *swish, hoot, wail, pitter-patter*.

Have the children skim through a story or a newspaper to find as many of each kind of word as they can. Let each child pronounce his words aloud to find out how much their sound suggests their meaning. Through discussion help them understand that it is the experiences we have had that give us the pictures we see or sounds we hear when words are pronounced. Discuss fine differences of meaning between words such as *wail* and *scream*. Later encourage each pupil to write original stories in which they use some of the interesting words. Have each story read aloud. Then have the stories displayed on a bulletin board or made into a booklet for a library table.

GAME OF ANTONYMS. It has often been said that we do not know the precise meaning of a word until we know the meaning of its opposite. For example, we do not know what *cold* is until we understand *hot*; what *high* is until we know *low*. The game of antonyms is valuable for this purpose and affords children much pleasure in working and constructing puzzles. They enjoy making them from

reading material and giving them to the class or to another child to solve. Directions for such a puzzle might be as follows.

Antonyms are words that mean the opposite.
Begin with the word at the top.
Change just one letter to make the next word.
Do this until you get the antonym of the first word.

h	a	t	e
l	o	v	e

(to own)

(a place where bees live)

(not dead)

DICTIONARY RIDDLES.   Dictionary riddles will help children clarify the meanings of new words in a story and will afford practice in the use of a dictionary. Let each child choose one word from a list of new words in a story and have him make up a riddle about it. In the riddle he should tell what the word means, the number of letters it has, and its first and last letter, as in the following example:

One child says, "My word means *courage*. It has five letters. It begins with *v* and ends with *r*." The other children write a word they think it is. Then they check the meaning and their spelling of the word they guessed by finding the word quickly in a dictionary. Each child gives his riddle in turn. At the end of the game the child with most words guessed and spelled correctly is the winner.

Fourth stage of development.   In the fourth stage of development children use their past experiences and known word symbols to further their experiences and to enlarge their vocabularies. They increase the fund of word meanings through wide reading. If reading material is easy enough, they will understand the meaning of a new word from its setting in a sentence. Important words will reappear in different settings or contexts sufficiently often to show their exact meaning. Children use the new words in writing and speaking because they feel a real need to express themselves more

adequately when they share their experiences with others. They learn to recognize implied meanings and to interpret figurative expressions that are used to enrich language.

Activities used to develop vocabulary at this stage will create interest and foster curiosity for further reading. They will cause a child to feel a real need to express himself further and give him insight into ways of learning the meaning of a new word in context. A few activities of this type are given here.

CROSSING THE CHANNEL. To help children recognize implied meanings and interpret figurative expressions, have them write such phrases in a notebook as they find them in their reading. Then play the following game.

Select a child to be starter, then divide the remainder of the group into two crews. On a chalkboard write figurative phrases in column 1 and their meanings in column 2. List the meanings in mixed order. Two members of opposing crews should face the starter, who should then point to a phrase in column 1. The first crewman to find the matching phrase in column 2 has crossed the channel and should take his seat. He should be replaced by one of his crewmates. The losing crewman should remain to try to cross the channel before the next man does. The crew which finishes first wins. Phrases might be as follows:

Column 1	Column 2
in trade	to keep a store
spot of tea	in your beds
the steward freezes	the ship sailed fast
in your bunks	a command to start
trim vessels	full of life
up anchor	the steward is not pleased
the ship fled	a club only certain people may join
exclusive club	a cup of tea
a regular whirlwind	neat ships

A SPORTS BULLETIN BOARD. To increase interest and foster curiosity for further reading, let the children plan and arrange a sports bulletin board. Have them collect newspaper and other reports of sports events. Let each child tell the group about each clipping he

finds. Then have children arrange the items in an attractive manner on bulletin board.

CREATIVE WRITING.   Many occasions will inspire children to write original poems and stories. For example, after a storm they may want to share experiences they have had during a storm.

Have pupils suggest words or phrases that describe a storm. If it has been a snowstorm, these words or phrases should describe falling snow or the appearance of snow after it has fallen. Encourage the children to use unusual words and phrases. Write the words and phrases on a chalkboard as they are suggested. Then let children create their own poems or stories. Later let each child read his contributions to the group. Stories and poems may be illustrated and made into an attractive booklet for a library table.

CHAPTER 12 ✦ DEVELOPING SKILL IN UNDERSTANDING WHAT IS READ

IT IS OBVIOUS that children who have facility in word recognition and a rich background of word meanings find it easy to concentrate on comprehension of ideas. There is a danger, however, that in our eagerness to have children master the skills of reading we might isolate these skills to a point where pupils become experts on details but lose the purpose of reading. We must remember at all times that the primary purpose of reading is to gain understanding and insight. Children need to learn to grasp the pattern of a story as a whole, to fit details into it, and to reorganize and assimilate it in such a way as to enable them to make it a part of their own experience.

Comprehension is a complex activity. It is the ability to think and to understand as one sees a printed page. Children understand what they read when they are able to relate their personal experiences to the language of an author. They must have a wealth of experiences. It is impossible to comprehend something that is foreign to us even though we may be able to pronounce the words. Facts are given by an author but a reader must interpret them. He must create for himself from symbols on a printed page, descriptions, shifts in meanings of words, moods, and ideas an author wishes to express. He must be able to reproduce in his mind what he would hear if an author were talking to him. Thus, comprehension is dependent upon language facility and upon a rich background of experiences.

Comprehension is a composite of many factors, all of them interrelated. Although these factors are interrelated, children need abundant experience and guidance in each of them to become proficient in understanding what they read.

Although there are some differences of opinion concerning phases of comprehension, many authorities agree that competence in certain skills and abilities is essential to enable pupils to become well-

rounded, mature readers. The following abilities will be considered in this chapter:

Relating the ideas read to previous experience

Reading to get the main idea of a sentence, paragraph, or story

Reading to select important details

Reading between the lines, drawing inferences correctly, and anticipating meanings

Reading to follow printed directions

Reading to gain sensory images from material

Reading for sequential order

Recognizing various types of material and understanding the purpose for which the material is being read

Proficiency in each of the various comprehension abilities contributes to successful reading. From the very first lesson in reading children employ many, if not all, of the abilities. Differentiation of these abilities may not be marked in beginning reading, but it is at this time that first instructional procedures should be started and a sequential program of development inaugurated.

One of the greatest weaknesses in many reading programs is failure to develop all the essential skills and abilities of a comprehension program. Too often a teacher overdevelops one or two phases of comprehension at the expense of other skills. A disproportionate number of exercises are devoted frequently to a single aspect such as reading for details, with little or no guidance in developing the ability, for example, to read to gain visual images of material read.

A brief discussion of each comprehension ability with suggestive exercises for its development follows. The abilities are not given in order of importance. Since they are all interrelated it would be impossible to estimate their relative values. It must be remembered, however, that material used must be at a level of the children. Choose the most interesting and challenging material possible and provide plenty of opportunities for the children to discuss and use what they read. Arrange a schedule to permit time daily for reading for pure enjoyment. Build in the children a real desire to read merely for the fun of it.

Relating Ideas Read to Previous Experience

It has been stated that the fundamental basis for reading with understanding is the ability of the reader to think with and beyond an author. To do this it is necessary to be able to relate what is read to one's own experience. One must be able to add the facts given by an author to his own experiences. He must make associations and assimilate the material in order to think and to form opinions and conclusions. Children who are unable to do this are literal readers. They are unimaginative and fail to grasp the implications and to appreciate the full impact of a story or an article.

A little child senses this ability when he writes a letter such as the following one written by a ten-year-old to his aunt.

> Dear Auntie,
> Next Tuesday is my birthday. That swell red bicycle is still in the store window. I am saving for it but I am afraid it will be sold before I can get that much money. I have four dollars and sixty-two cents now. I wish you could come to my party.
>
> Love,
>
> George

George is fully confident that Auntie will relate what he has written to her own childhood experiences and because of these associations be able to grasp the full implications of this letter. The letter will be far more meaningful to Auntie if she has experienced a similar need for something in her own childhood.

ACTIVITIES FOR RELATING READING TO EXPERIENCE

The ability to relate reading to one's own experiences is commonly known as associative reading. Skill in associative reading may be increased by good teaching. In early primary grades a child is given real experiences before he reads. For example, children actually visit a post office or a farm or a grocery store before they read about

it. In that way a teacher is able to guide them in associative thinking when they read a story. They are able to supplement facts given in the story, to make associations, to form opinions, to discuss, and to evaluate.

In intermediate grades children are guided frequently in associative reading through vicarious experiences. For example, in reading a story about India, they might be asked to put themselves in the place of a little boy of India in order to be ready to tell how his life is like theirs, how his school is like theirs, how it is different, whether they would like to trade places with this little boy, and why. This type of reading requires children to draw constantly on their own experiences as they read a story, to relate the facts that are given to their own experiences, to use their imaginations to think beyond the facts, to make interpretations, to evaluate, and to form conclusions.

An alert teacher will provide many interesting opportunities for the children to learn to relate the facts given by an author to their own experiences. A few exercises of this type are given here.

LIBRARY OF TOYS. Many times pupils are asked to read about play experiences of other children. Sometimes they have never actually experienced playing with similar toys. In order that they may enrich their play experiences and thus associate their experiences with ideas they gain from reading, let them plan and make a toy library.

Orange crates can be used for shelves. Crates should be painted any color the children wish. Have children bring toys from home and place them on the shelves. More mature children should make and cut out slips to be used in checking out toys. A new librarian should be chosen each week. At specified times have children go to the library and select a toy. They should give a slip to the librarian and take out a toy with which they desire to play. At the end of the time allotted for their play, they should check the toy back into the library.

BIRD FEEDING STATION. A background for reading nature stories and the accumulation of interesting science information may be gained through planning and building a bird feeding station.

Let the children discuss pets such as cats, birds, and squirrels. Direct the conversation to talk about the care and feeding of birds. Have the children plan and build a bird feeding station. They should look at books and talk to their parents and friends to find out how to build a station and what kinds of food they should feed birds. Have them carry out this activity and take care of the station all winter.

FARM EXPERIENCES. Broad backgrounds of understanding are gained best by real experiences. If it is impossible for pupils to have the actual experiences, filmstrips, pictures, and library books may be used successfully. Before the children read about a farm, a teacher should plan carefully to be sure that all pupils have the basic concepts of farm life. If it is not possible to arrange a visit to a nearby farm, show them farm pictures and such films as "Farm Animals," "Poultry on the Farm," and "Shep, the Farm Dog." These may be obtained from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

Place library books about farms on a table and read such farm stories as *Fun at Happy Acres* by Barlow and Martinson, published by Saalfield, and *Flip and the Cows* by W. Dennis, published by Viking.

Vicarious experiences may be used to a greater extent in the later elementary grades in guiding children in associative reading. To aid pupils in relating what they read with their past experiences have them select an informative story which is new to them. Then have them answer specific questions relating to the story and their own experiences (or their reading experiences). For example, after they read "Dig and Dogie Days" in *From Every Land,*[1] the following questions could be asked.

1. Have you ever used a coil of rope to try to rope a person or an object? What would you call roping a person or an object? Find the place in "Dig and Dogie Days" where a lasso or lariat is used and tell how that is like the roping you have done.

2. Have you ever seen on television or in a picture or in a rodeo one person remove another from a moving object—a motorcycle, a horse, or a car? Where in this story is there a similar experience?

[1] Yoakam, Hester, and Abney, *From Every Land,* Laidlaw Basic Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, pp. 277 ff.

3. Have you ever sat in a grandstand or bleacher seat and watched a parade or listened to a band? What similar experience is there in this story?

In this manner bring out similarities between the experiences of a pupil and those in the story. After such a discussion have the pupils reread the story to see if they can derive increased comprehension and enjoyment from it.

Selections about people can be used to advantage in helping children relate the things they read to their own experiences. Directions might be as follows:

Make a list of names of people in the story. Beside the name of each person write one thing that happened to him. Then write one word to tell how the person felt—happy, sad, disappointed, afraid, joyous. Think of something that happened to you to make you feel the same way, and write it down. Use a form like the one below.

Name	Experience	Feeling	My Experience
Elsie	Helped pick flowers for Paul so he could save money	Happy	Helped a friend earn money to buy a bicycle

Reading to Get the Main Idea

Reading for the main thought of a selection or paragraph is a very important aspect of reading comprehension. It requires not only the ability to obtain important facts from a printed page but also the ability to organize these facts in such a way that the central thought of a paragraph or selection becomes evident. Before a reader can do this successfully, however, he must be able to recognize central thought when listening to a paragraph or to a longer selection.

Many children fail to grasp significant facts for several reasons. First of all, they are not taught to listen effectively to recognize

central thought. Secondly, there is sometimes overemphasis on intensive study of details which are not always significant. Children are required to read every word as though each one were of equal value. They are not taught to grasp significant details that will enable them to gain a clear idea of what a paragraph is about and to discard all irrelevant details. They must be encouraged to let their eyes jump along the line to get meaning from whatever words and phrases their eyes meet, rather than to try to see every word and get every idea in each line

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN READING FOR MAIN IDEAS

The ability to read for main ideas is one that must be developed gradually. From the time a child begins to read, systematic instruction should be provided both in listening and reading to gain general impressions and grasp significant facts that support these impressions. Exercises that develop skill in this important aspect of comprehension should be provided at each reading level. The following exercises are representative of the types that may be used successfully.

POEM STORIES.   Poetry is enjoyed by children of all grades. Listening to poems read by a teacher gives pupils an opportunity to gain general impressions and to grasp significant details that support these impressions.

Experience in interpreting the main ideas may be increased by letting the children tell "poem stories." The teacher should choose a poem that appeals to and interests the pupils. She should ask them to listen carefully so that they can make up stories of their own about the poem. The children can tell or write their stories or record them on a tape recorder.

A reading class at the Gladeview School, Miami, Florida, made a booklet of original stories about the poem "Little Boy Blue" by Eugene Field. The impressions of one child were expressed in the following story.

Once there was a little boy with dark blue eyes and blonde hair. He lived in a cute little house with a red roof and green shutters. His name was Johnnie. He liked people to call him Little Boy Blue, and the people thought it was a cute nickname.

One day it was his birthday. He was four years old, and his mother took him downtown to get him something for his birthday. He saw a little toy soldier in the window and a little toy dog. He asked his mother if he could have it, and she said, "Yes." Then they got in the car and went home.

When they got there it was 8:00 P.M. and time for the little boy to go to bed. He set his toys on the chair and kissed them goodnight. He told them not to make any noise. Then he got into bed and went to sleep.

In the middle of the night an angel song awoke him. The next morning the toys looked for him and could not find him—and they still stand waiting for him to come.

Robin Terry

A little girl in the same class interpreted the poem differently.

Every night before bedtime Little Boy Blue kissed his soldier and toy dog good night. One night Little Boy Blue got sick and had to go to the hospital. The little toys were lonely, but when he got out of the hospital, everyone was happy. Then happiness returned to the home.

As the months went on, Little Boy Blue started getting sick again and he had to go to the hospital.

One night the telephone rang. It was from the hospital. They said Little Boy Blue wanted his soldier and dog. When they got there, it was too late. Little Boy Blue had died. You could see tears rolling down the Mother's and Father's eyes, and you could almost imagine that the soldier and dog were crying, too.

There they stand waiting for Little Boy Blue to come and kiss them.

Yolanda Causing

A THOUGHT HUNT. A thought hunt is an interesting exercise that will provide practice in recognition and location of central thought of a paragraph. The paragraphs in the story may be numbered be-

fore reading a selection. Directions to children might read as follows:

Are you a good hunter? If you are, you will be able to find each paragraph below. Write the page number of each paragraph on the lines. Find the paragraph that tells

	Page	Number
what Bill and Bee found		
what Mother said to the children		
how the children cared for the pets		
where the kittens slept		

TELL THE STORY.   Pupils' ability to comprehend the main events of a story may be strengthened by having them retell stories they have read. Write on a chalkboard main events as they are told, then have volunteers read the sentences aloud before you have the group decide whether the events tell a complete story. As pupils gain facility in selecting the main thought of a paragraph, directions to them might be as follows:

There are (indicate the number) paragraphs in the story. Write the numbers of the paragraphs in order and tell what each paragraph is about. Use one short sentence for each paragraph. Your sentences should tell the important thoughts of the story.

STORY EDITOR.   "Story Editor" makes an interesting game that can be adapted to any reading level.

Have the children collect short stories they can read. These may be cut out of children's magazines. Mount them on oaktag or heavy paper to make them durable. Cut off the title. On the reverse side of a story print or type the title.

Let the children exchange stories, keeping the original titles themselves. Each child reads the story he receives and then attempts to write a short, descriptive title such as editors use. When he has written his title, he may check one he has composed by comparing it with the original title.

Interesting discussions concerning relative values of titles composed by children may follow. After playing the game several times, children may decide who is the best "story editor." He may be selected as editor of a class paper.

Reading to Select Important Details

Reading for details is one phase of comprehension that is likely to be overdeveloped. In our system of education, too much attention is paid to details as such, without consideration of their relative importance. Too many textbooks and workbooks ask questions of *who, what, when, where,* and too few ask *why.* Little attempt is made to guide a pupil to select details that will lead to major understandings.

Many teachers have been subjected to college courses in which examinations were based upon retention of innumerable unrelated specific details. They had to become veritable walking encyclopedias to pass courses. Little attention was given to the use of details as an aid to grasping the full significance of the material or to making an analysis of relationships. This emphasis on remembering isolated, unrelated details has been increased greatly by radio and by television. Ability to give forth facts, many of little or no significance to the people who are uttering them, has been glorified by radio and television quiz shows.

An essential thing for a reader to learn is that details are important when they contribute to a better understanding of the material. Children should be taught to see details in relation to the main concepts which the details help to develop. Teaching of this skill needs to be approached with caution. Overemphasis is likely to produce slow, meticulous readers who remember most of the factual material but fail to understand the relations of facts to major concepts.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO SELECT IMPORTANT DETAILS

Specific instruction must be given to help children acquire skill in discerning important items and in discarding irrelevant ones. They need to be taught to recognize facts that help to give a clear

picture and to select those that contribute to a better understanding of a paragraph or story. Proficiency in this skill requires practice from the time a child begins to read throughout his school career. A few exercises of this type that have proved interesting to children are suggested here.

MERRY-GO-ROUND. To help children learn to retain important details in a story, let them play "Merry-Go-Round." First, choose an informative selection such as "The Boy Who Made Steam Work for Us" from *Doorways to Adventure.*[2] Guide their silent reading by questions that will center attention on important facts. For this story questions might be as follows

Who was the little boy?
What did he ask his grandmother?
How did he get his idea about steam?
What did he do about it?
How did he make steam work for us?

After the story has been read and discussed, let them play the merry-go-round game.

Select one pupil to be a "rider" and have other pupils seated in a large circle. The rider should stand in back of one of the pupils in the circle. Ask one question such as "Who was the little boy?" If the rider can answer the question he moves behind the next person in the circle. If he misses, he exchanges places with the pupil behind whose chair he is standing and that pupil becomes the rider.

FINISH THE SENTENCE. Another exercise that affords practice in recognition and retention of important details is a sentence-completion exercise. The teacher selects and numbers important sentences that are related to the understanding of a story and writes the numbers and incomplete sentences on a chalkboard. The children copy them on their papers and write something after the word or phrase that will complete the sentence. Each pupil reads his complete sentences. Any questionable statements should be checked with the story. For example, in the story "The Soldier Who Loved Peace"

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[2] Harold G. Shane and Kathleen B. Hester, *Doorways to Adventure*, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1960, pp. 85–90.

in *From Every Land*,[3] the following incomplete statements in relation to the life of Robert E. Lee might be written on a chalkboard.

1. Richard Henry Lee (*was a hero of the Revolution*). . . . .
2. George Washington . . . .
3. When Robert was eleven years old . . . .
4. His education . . . .
5. Mary Custis . . . .
6. During the Mexican War . . . .

CHARACTERS FROM STORIES.   A favorite game that teaches selection of important details is "Characters." This game may be adapted easily to the maturity level of the children.

Have pupils list on a chalkboard the names of some people in stories. Tell pupils to choose one person and write a brief summary of facts about him. Caution them not to tell anyone else about whom they are writing.

One pupil begins by giving one clue about the character he has chosen but without giving the name. For example, he might begin with his first sentence, "He was born in Virginia." With that information the next player must add a fact to the biography. He might say, "He graduated from West Point." That would be true of Lee. If, however, he did not guess that the first player was thinking of Lee, and said, "He became the first president of the United States," the first player would call, "Wrong."

The game continues with each player trying to add one fact to the biography and guess the name of the character. The first one who adds a correct fact and gives the correct name may start the next biography.

A PICTURE HUNT.   A picture hunt is enjoyed by children at any reading level. Directions can be adapted to the age level; for intermediate grades they might be as follows:

Find a part of the story that would be a good subject for a picture. Draw a picture and color it. Be sure to put in all important parts. Give the picture a title. On the back of the picture write the page number of the part you have chosen.

When pictures are completed, let each child show his picture to

[3] Yoakam, Hester, and Abney, *From Every Land*, pp. 186–197.

the group. As a picture is exhibited, have the other children guess what part of the story it illustrates. Let a child who guesses correctly read that part of the story while the other pupils listen to see if all important details have been included.

Reading Between Lines, Drawing Inferences Correctly, Anticipating Meaning

"John is a fluent reader but he does not know what he has read when he is through." This remark is often heard when teachers are talking together. Such a condition is the result of inadequate instruction in certain aspects of comprehension. An effective reading program provides not only for comprehension of the symbols on a printed page but for skill in reading between the lines, drawing correct inferences, and anticipating an author's meaning. It is not sufficient for children to read literally. A good reader thinks about what he has read. If children cannot see beyond the facts in a story, they have not yet learned good habits of thinking while they are reading. The most mature reader draws upon his own experiences as he reads the words of an author. He matches up what he is reading with what he knows. He thinks how things are going to turn out, and forms deductions from evidence given. If he is reading about people he becomes well asquainted with the characters. He raises questions such as, "Is the character like me?" and "Why does the character act as he does?" These questions are not answered specifically by an author; but answers can be figured out if a reader has learned to "read between lines" and to make deductions.

Skill in these aspects of comprehension will increase the children's interest in reading and the depth of their comprehension. It will help them to grow in their power to make associations, to deduct, and to form unbiased opinions and valid conclusions.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN READING BETWEEN LINES, DRAWING INFERENCES, AND ANTICIPATING MEANING

Certain types of exercises should be provided to encourage and to guide children in development of these abilities. They should be arranged according to maturity levels of children. Experience in thinking with an author, in reading between lines, in relating cause and effect, in drawing correct inferences, and in anticipating meanings must be started when a child first begins to read. This instruction may begin in early primary grades through the solving of problems that arise in classroom activities and through the completion of stories. Many experiences later in the primary grades and in the intermediate grades can be provided through the use of problem solving, especially in natural science and in social sciences.

Several exercises are suggested here. An alert teacher will find many more opportunities to give needed guidance for pupil growth in this aspect of comprehension.

SCIENCE EXPERIMENTS. Anticipation of meaning based upon facts at hand is a prerequisite to scientific thinking. Science experiments are an excellent means of developing facility in comprehension of materials read. Sufficient training should be provided to permit a child to develop this ability to maximum limits. The difficulty of an experiment should be adapted to the level of the group. Here is one example of such an experiment.

How does baking powder make dough rise?

Put a teaspoonful of baking powder in a small jar. Fill the jar halfway up with water. Put the cork on very quickly but loosely. Shake the jar and set it down. Notice that the baking powder and water are bubbling. What happens?

How does this cause dough to rise?

TELL THE STORY. Skill in reading to predict the outcome of events and to form deductions from evidence given can be gained through use of problem solving. Any exercises that involve reasoning are valuable. Storytelling provides an excellent activity for this purpose.

The teacher should read a story to the children and stop at a very exciting point. Then she should let children tell what they think will happen and why. She should then finish reading the story to let the children compare their endings with that of the author.

COMIC STRIPS.   An adaptation of a storytelling exercise is making comic strips.

Give each pupil a sheet of paper and have him fold it into four parts, so that the creases will show the size for each picture. Lines should be drawn over the creases to make frames for the cartoons.

Have the children make four cartoons. The first three should tell the main idea of a story in sequential order. The fourth cartoon should tell what a pupil thinks will happen in the story. When the comic strips have been completed, have each pupil show his strip to the group and tell about it.

CHARACTER DESCRIPTIONS.   Have pupils read stories about children or adults and then discuss with them what kind of people the characters are. For example, after reading *The Three Bears* pupils could decide whether Goldilocks was a good girl and whether she was thoughtful. In the story of William Tell, they could decide what kind of person Gessler was, how William Tell's father felt about the sentence that was imposed upon him, and the way the Austrian soldiers felt toward Gessler.

Have the children justify their conclusions from the facts given in the story. Children who have difficulty in reaching reasonable conclusions should be taught to recall the main points in sequential order. From these facts they should draw inferences and come to conclusions.

Reading to Follow Printed Directions

Reading to understand precise directions is a type of reading comprehension that is extremely important both for study skills and for life outside of school. One of the most important uses of reading in life is to find out how to do things. Many people are unable to

read directions efficiently because they have had very little guidance in this type of reading. From the time children first learn to listen for directions, systematic guidance and encouragement should be given in order that they may make steady progress in following directions of increasing difficulty.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO FOLLOW DIRECTIONS

This skill may be developed through the use of written directions in regular classroom activities if the directions are written within children's reading level. Pupils should be given an opportunity to interpret directions themselves. This may be a slow process at first, but it will develop independence and power in this skill. Too many times a teacher is in a hurry. She hands children a mimeographed sheet containing directions for work, then, lest time be wasted, she tells them what to do rather than allowing them to read the directions independently and to carry them to completion. It is often advisable to supplement this type of instruction with selections consisting entirely of written directions.

Single-sentence directions. In beginning this type of work, exercises should be limited to a single sentence. That is, each sentence should be a specific direction, not dependent upon the remaining part of a selection for completion. In this way failure will be eliminated even for a beginning child. The following exercise, "Finish the Picture," is indicative of this type (see illustration). The complexity of sentences may be adjusted to maturity levels of children.
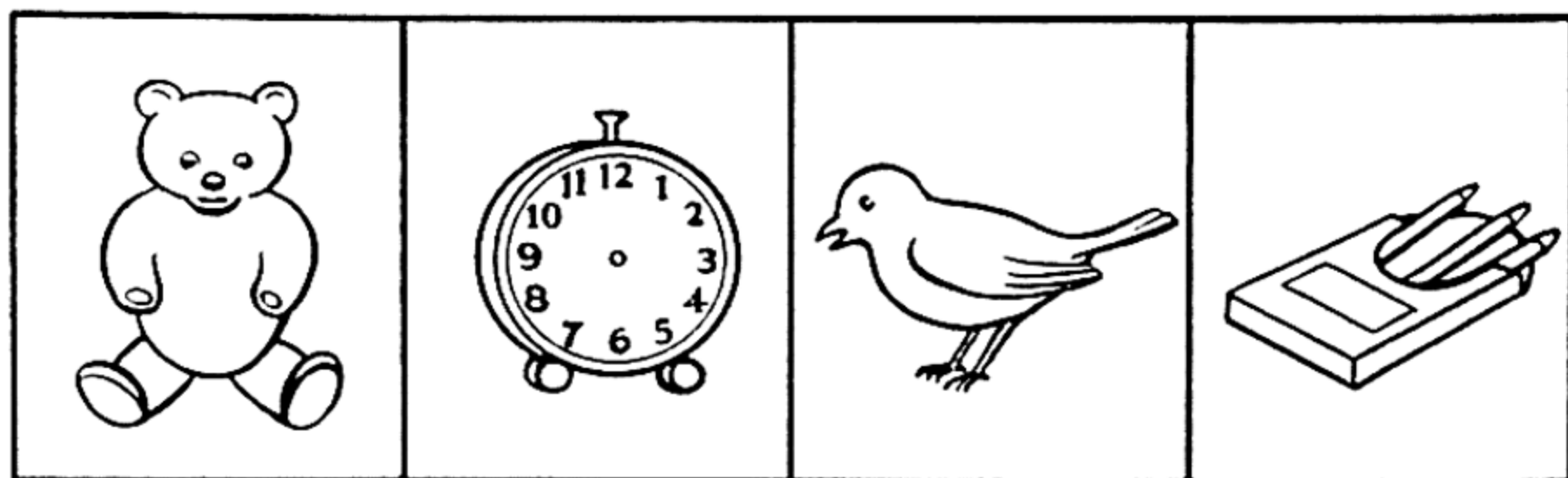
Finish the Picture

Directions: 1. Write the word *bear* under the picture of this animal.
2. Make the clock say three o'clock.
3. The little bird is hungry. Put a worm in his mouth.
4. There are three crayons in the box. Make marks under the box to show how many there are in it.

More complex directions. Skill in executing directions must be developed further than that necessary to complete an exercise of a single-sentence type. When children are able to carry out simple directions, orally and in written form, they should be given exercises which require comprehension of a whole paragraph. It is vital that they develop this ability in order to make and do things for present-day living and to be able to interpret directions intelligently as an adult. Successful cooking, homemaking, gardening, and many types of business are dependent upon the ability to follow directions accurately and intelligently.

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES. One functional way in which to give practice in more complex type of directions is through use of classroom activities. If an activity is being carried on in a classroom, supply children with written directions within their reading level for construction of certain articles necessary to the activity. Directions for modeling soap, making an igloo, drawing and painting a picture, constructing an airplane, and numerous other activities can be presented in paragraph form, as in the following example:

Directions: Draw or paint the picture this story makes you see. Be sure you put in everything.

Jean Nicolet went to meet the man who traded with the Indians. He was dressed in a grand robe of China damask. It was all embroidered with flowers and birds of many colors. With a pistol in each hand, he approached the strange traders. As he came near, the men were frightened. They ran away from the man "with thunder and lightning in his hands."

YARN DOLLS. Dramatizations are effective means of learning. Making characters affords an excellent opportunity for children to develop skill in reading to follow directions. Yarn dolls may be

used for this purpose, and also they make nice bookmarks. Directions are given here.

Each child will need eight strands of yarn 6 inches long, five strands of yarn 4 inches long, and scrap yarn for tying. Dolls are made in the following way:

1. Hold the 6-inch strands together. Fold them in the center over the 4-inch strands.
2. Tie the 6-inch strands about ½ inch from the top, but above the 4-inch strands.
3. Tie the 6-inch strands together in the center.
4. Tie the 4-inch strands together at each side of the 6-inch strands. The 4-inch strands make the arms.
5. Tie the hands about ½ inch from the ends of the 4-inch strands. This completes a girl doll.
6. For a boy doll, separate the lower part into two sections and tie about ½ inch from the end.
7. Eyes, nose, and mouth may be made by a stitch or two if desired.

A REVIEW GAME. To provide practice in reading and following directions as well as in retention of important facts, duplicate the following directions and encourage the pupils to follow them without any assistance.

1. Number as many slips of paper as there are people in your group.
2. Write on each slip of paper an important question about a selection.
3. On the back of each slip of paper write the answer to the question that is on the front of the slip of paper.
4. Place all your questions and answers in a box on teacher's desk.
5. When your teacher tells you to do so, count off so that each person has a number.
6. Your teacher will select a pupil to reach into the box, pull out a question, and read it aloud. If the number on the slip of paper is your number, you must answer the question.
7. If you answer the question correctly, you may keep the slip of paper. Also you may draw out the next question and read it.
8. At the end of the game count the slips of paper you have. Write the number beside your name on a chalkboard. The person who has the greatest number of slips of paper wins the game.

Reading to Gain Sensory Images

A good reader sees mental pictures as he reads. These pictures are vivid; they are in technicolor; they are accompanied by sound effects. Delight in reading literature depends to a great extent upon richness of imagery. For example, in the sentence "The little boy used to talk to the birds," there are vivid pictures and sounds. To children who have lived in the country there will be mental pictures of cardinals, bluejays, and orioles bursting with song, hopping about the little boy, taking crumbs he offers and listening to what he says. To a child without such experiences, or to one who has never learned to see pictures as he reads, there will be just a number of words making a sentence. There are wide differences in the ability of children to translate these words into images.

Success in arithmetic depends largely upon children's ability to visualize when they are reading. Story problems are troublesome because they fail to see concepts that are presented. For example, children are often confused when they are subtracting numbers such as 9 from 15. If a teacher gives a child a dime and five pennies, then asks whether he could pay her nine cents, his answer will be yes. When he tries to hand her nine cents he finds that he cannot do it because he has not the correct change. He discovers that he must change the dime. When the teacher gives him ten pennies for his dime, and he puts it with his five pennies, he can readily pay the nine cents and have six cents left over.

Children who have many opportunities to visualize this process do not make common subtraction errors such as subtracting the minuend from the subtrahend. They see instantly the necessity of changing the number in the dime's place.

Adding imagery to reading is an important aspect of comprehension. It is a function of the mind. Children can be taught to translate words into pictures with sound effects. This skill is facilitated by systematic instruction from the time a child begins to read

throughout elementary grades. Delight in reading fiction and in appreciating poetry and imaginative literature is dependent largely upon skill in this aspect of comprehension.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN GAINING SENSORY IMAGES

Some exercises that will help children visualize when reading are suggested here. An alert teacher will take advantage of every opportunity that arises in a classroom to help her pupils gain facility in reading with visual imagery.

STORY MAPS. After the children have read a story, have them decide where it has taken place. Do this with each story they read. Let them find the place on a large world map and mark it with a picture illustrative of some part of a story. Have them trace the routes from the places where the stories are set to their home town. At the close of the semester children will have an interesting picture-story map.

POETRY. Poems offer splendid opportunities for children to learn to read for sensory images.

Read a poem to pupils. Before you begin ask them to close their eyes to find out what pictures they see and what sounds they hear as the poem is read. Give each pupil an opportunity to tell what he saw and what he heard. List on a chalkboard any picturesque phrases and sound phrases that were used, as follows:

Picture Phrases	Sound Phrases
bonfires and torches	the creaking window
calm, gliding Delaware	swelling murmur
fairies in dewdrops	hurry softly to the orchard

STORY TABLECLOTH. To help pupils learn to visualize what they read, let them make a tablecloth that can be used for classroom parties.

Let each child select a story he likes best. Then have him illustrate his favorite scene of the story. Have children draw their pictures on paper and then arrange them on a large piece of unbleached muslin. When all pictures are in place, put carbon under them and pin them down firmly. Then let each pupil trace his picture, remove the paper, and color the

tracing solidly with wax crayons. When the pictures are finished, press the tablecloth between heavy wrapping paper with a hot iron. Heat from the iron will melt the wax crayon and dye the color into the cloth. Edges of the cloth may be hemmed or fringed.

SLIDES. Further development in visual imagery may be had from making slides to illustrate a story or article. Slides may be shown as they tell parts of a story or article. If no commercial projection lantern is available some children can readily assemble a homemade projection lantern. Science books or children's reference books will tell how a machine can be made from a cardboard carton, electric light, and mirrors.

To make slides, give pupils the following directions:

1. Choose a part of a story to illustrate.
2. Cut a piece of drawing paper the exact size of a glass slide, 3¼ by 4 inches.
3. Sketch your illustration on the paper.
4. When you have a satisfactory illustration, place the glass over it. Trace the illustration on the frosted side of the glass.
5. Color your illustration with indelible transparent pencils. (Ordinary crayons may be used if pencils are not available, although the colors will not be quite as satisfactory.)
6. Shortly before you show a slide, oil it lightly with machine oil. This will make the colors more transparent.

Etched glass for slides may be purchased from the Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania. These slides may be scoured and used over and over again. A more complete discussion of sensory imagery is found in Chapter 22.

Reading for Sequential Order

An essential part of understanding what one reads is the ability to note order or sequence of events. The sense of sequential order develops slowly with some children. If you ask a young child to relate what he has done from the time he arose until he came to

school, his story is likely to sound like this: "I ate my breakfast, I went to school, I got up out of bed, I washed and dressed."

Understanding and noting the sequential order of events is important in reading factual material. Solution of arithmetic problems is dependent upon skill in noting sequential order and seeing relationships. Examine this problem, for example:

Teddy went to the store for his mother. She gave him $5.00. He spent $1.60 for meat, $.75 for butter, and $1.30 for fruit and vegetables. How much change should he bring home?

To solve the problem successfully, children must realize the necessity of first adding to find out how much Teddy spent before they can subtract to arrive at the solution.

Reading scientific experiments, recipes, and directions for classroom activities requires ability to sense sequential order. Order in which ingredients are added frequently makes the difference between a good cake and a cake that cannot be eaten.

In reading geography and history, a student must be able to sense order of events. Sequential order is vital to a real understanding of cause and effect. Time concepts must be developed. Yesterday and tomorrow are the same to a young child; a decade and a century are the same to many intermediate-grade children. Teachers must spend time in the development of time relationships and the understanding of sequential order before a child can grasp the significance of the social studies material he reads.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO READ FOR SEQUENTIAL ORDER

The ability to relate events in proper order requires guidance and continued practice. Good instruction will pay big dividends to children both in their understanding of what they read and in their thinking and talking effectively. Practice in relating events in proper sequential order should begin in the prereading period and should be continued systematically throughout the elementary school. Some suggested activities are given here.

STORY PUZZLES.   Putting stories in order helps children to under-

stand sequential development. This activity may be started with children in the prereadng period and continued, with the use of more difficult material, until pupils have gained facility in placing events in proper order.

A teacher should do an exercise with children at first to show them what is desired. Then pictures may be left in the form of puzzles to be done independently by children and checked by the teacher.

Choose a story that is well known to the children, such as "The Three Pigs," "Red Riding Hood," or "The Three Bears." Collect a series of pictures telling the story selected. These may be obtained from old workbooks or from ten-cent-store books. Then proceed as follows:

In the first stage arrange pictures that tell the beginning, the end, and some incident during the story on a large card. Leave blank spaces for pictures that have been omitted. Place these pictures in an envelope and clip to a large card. A child takes a card and the envelope and lays the loose pictures in the proper blank spaces so that the story will be told in correct order.

When a child is adept at doing this, give him another set in which he will have to place *all* the pictures in order on a large card. There will be no clues as to the beginning and the end on this card.

The next step is that in which a child places pictures in order according to an accompanying story. Type parts of a story in sequence on a large card under the spaces for the pictures.

MY DAY. Children's ability to tell stories in sequence may be increased by using short conversation periods. In these periods have each child tell what he did the previous day. With older children the activity might take the following form.

Have each pupil make a complete list of all the things he did the preceding day. Then have him place beside each activity the approximate time it took place. When he has completed his list, have him number each incident in the order in which it occurred. He should use the approximate times he listed as one of his guides. If he listed any incident out of proper sequence, have him rewrite the incidents in correct order. Encourage discussion of the necessity for recognizing and using correct

1	2	3
4	5	6
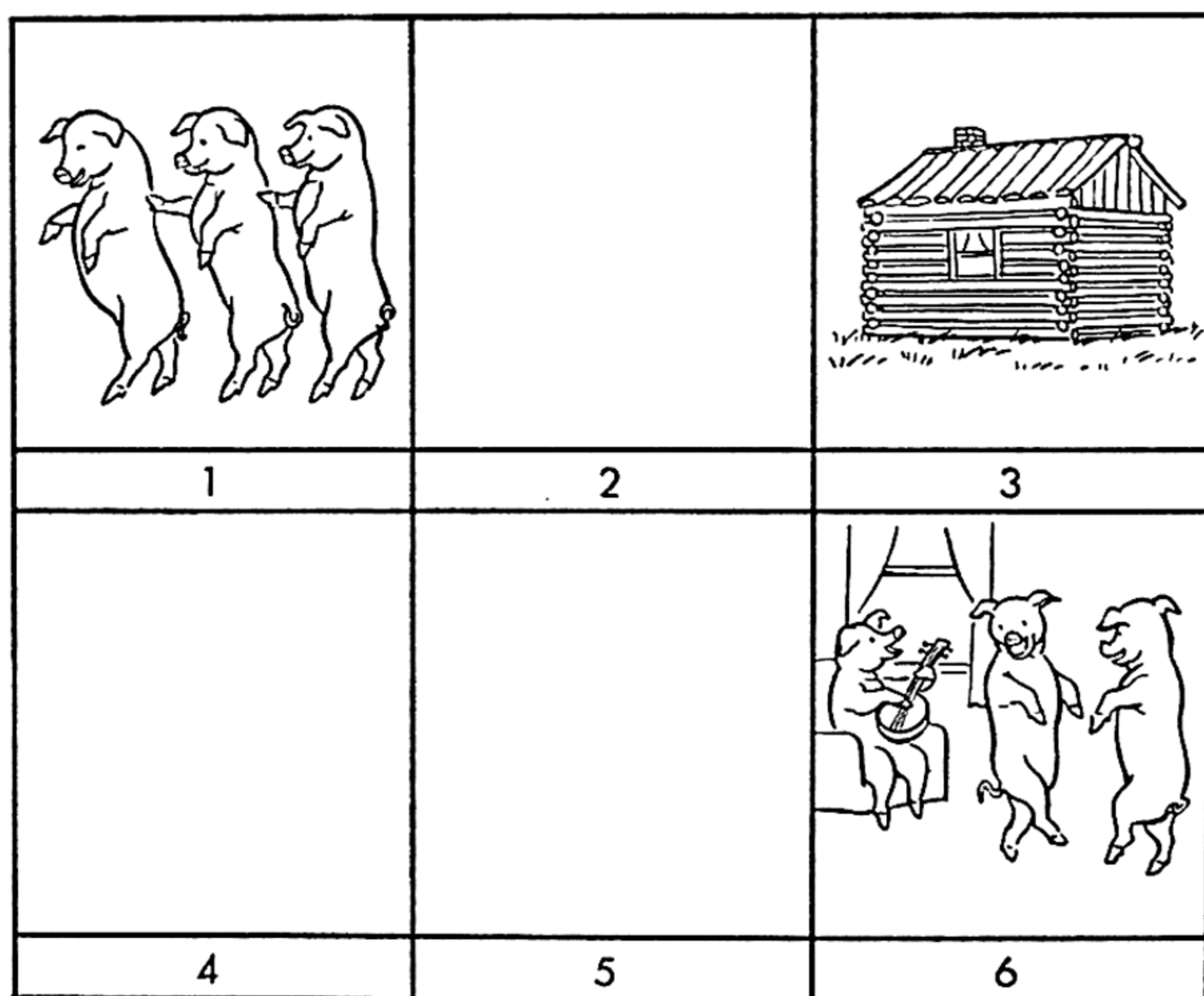
Sequential training: Step 1

sequence in various situations, such as in performing an experiment or when serving as a witness.

A TELEVISION SHOW.   Ability to retell a story in proper sequence may be developed through creating a television show. Have the pupils decide what scenes they would need to televise a story and let each pupil plan one scene. Have the children act out the scenes in correct order to tell the story.

TIME LINE.   To aid pupils in developing time concepts, have them make a historical time line of events to go with a selection. To make a time line do the following:

Provide shelf paper about 18 inches wide and the length of the longest available wall or chalkboard space. Then have pupils draw a line the length of the paper about 3 inches from the top of it. Pupils should divide the line into periods of years between the first and last dates found

1	2	3
Spotty finds a pretty ball.	"Mew-mew," says Spotty. "This ball is soft."	Spotty jumps on the ball.

4	5
"What fun," says Spotty. "Is it good to eat?"	"Listen!" Here comes Mother.

Sequential training: Step 2

in a selection. The time periods should be evenly divided, and the dates written in small numbers a little above the line at each division. Then have pupils print a title just above the center of the paper.

Each pupil should be assigned a part of the story in which to find all dates mentioned. As a pupil finds a date, he should write it down with the event that happened that year. When all the pupils have

completed this task, have the dates and events listed on a chalkboard. Pupils should decide on the form to use for their time line, for example,

1775 — The second meeting of the Continental Congress is held in Philadelphia.

Have the dates and events arranged in chronological order. Then have one committee selected to do the recording on the time line, and another committee to make drawings of major events. Then have dates and events recorded and pictures drawn below in the proper space.

Recognizing Various Types of Material and Understanding the Purpose for Which the Material Is Read

Children should be introduced from the beginning to a variety of types of reading. One limitation of adult readers is their inability to recognize different types of material and adapt a reading pattern to the type of material and the purpose for which it is read.

Children need to learn how to read fiction, poetry, drama, classics, and scientific and social studies materials. They need to know how and when to skim, to read rapidly, and to read carefully and accurately for study purposes. A good reader will read some materials faster than others. He will shift his pace in reading in accordance with purpose. Purpose of reading governs the rate and depth of comprehension. The more purposeful the reading, the higher the degree of comprehension. For this reason children should be guided in learning how to establish a purpose before beginning to read a selection.

Such instruction may be started at the primary level. It should be continued throughout the elementary-school period. Selections in a basic reader should include fictional stories, poetry, drama, classics,

and scientific and social studies stories. Before a selection is read the teacher should discuss with the children the type of material that is in it and the purpose for which it is to be read. Then she should help them decide whether it should be read very fast for main ideas and general impressions or carefully and accurately to obtain many details. For example, let us suppose children are going to read a scientific story about soapmaking in pioneer days.

Ask the pupils whether they have seen soap made. Have them ask their parents whether they have made soap, how they made it, and why the soap was made. Each pupil should report this information to the group. Ask the children where they get their soap and let them examine pictures of soapmaking. Let them discuss whether they believe it would be an easy task.

After the story has been introduced and motivated let the children find it in the table of contents in their books. Tell them they are going to read this story to find out exactly how soap was made. Discuss with them the importance of their finding out each thing that was needed for making soap. Then let them help to decide whether the story should be read rapidly or slowly and accurately.

After pupils have read the selection, have them tell in their own words how the soap was made. As they give the information, write on a chalkboard a series of sentences giving a step-by-step account of the making of soap. Number the sentences in order of their occurrence.

Perhaps the next day children are going to read a fictional story for pure enjoyment. The approach will be entirely different. Suppose, for example, they are going to read one of the "Peterkin" stories, such as "Elizabeth Eliza's Piano."

Stimulate pupils to discuss foolish things they have done, like trying to pour milk from a bottle without removing the cap, or sitting on the steps for an hour thinking they were locked out because the door was closed. Direct children's attention so that they recognize that most foolish acts would not be committed if the person involved had only taken time to think of a solution to his problem.

Let children anticipate foolish things that may happen in this story. Tell them they are going to read it just for fun. Each one should be ready to tell the part he enjoyed most. Have them decide whether the story should be read rapidly for fun or slowly and carefully for details.

Help them understand that a story read "just for fun" can be read very rapidly because they want only the main ideas.

After children have read the story silently, have them volunteer to tell in their own words parts of the story they liked best. Then let individuals read aloud parts they enjoyed most.

If, during their elementary-school career, pupils are guided in reading different types of material with an established purpose, their reading speed and comprehension will be increased greatly. Specific instruction in the adaptation of speed must be given. Children will not know when and how to skim and read rapidly and accurately for study purposes unless many experiences are provided. The skill of rapid reading was considered in the section on reading for main ideas, and study-type reading was considered under reading for important details. In the following sections we shall consider skimming, which is the fastest type of reading.

There are several types of skimming to consider, the purposes of which are (1) to discover the general organization of a book; (2) to find an article that deals with your subject or to select a paragraph pertinent to a topic; (3) to find answers to specific questions; and (4) to locate specific facts. An exercise for each type of skimming is suggested.

Skimming to discover the general idea of a section of a book. Skimming to get the general idea means superficial, rapid reading. Pupils should be told that they are not to try to see every word or to get every idea in a story or book. They should let their eyes travel rapidly over the pages to get a general idea from the organization keys such as paragraph headings, marginal notes, or subtitles. If they are trying to get a general idea of a short story or an article they should let their eyes jump across lines, making no more than two or three stops on each line. They should try to get the thought from words or phrases on which their eyes stop momentarily. They will soon find they can get a general idea quickly.

A reader should always have a specific purpose for skimming. He might look over a book to see if he thinks he would enjoy it or he

might look over a section or an article to see if it gives some desired information. Class procedure might be as follows:

Have the pupils locate in their books a new section or unit. Have them look at the pictures and read the section headings or other organization keys that may be used. Encourage a discussion of the pictures and headings so that pupils anticipate the stories or content of the section. At the conclusion of the discussion, children should have a clear idea of the contents of this section. If it is a section of a content-subject textbook, they should have a general idea of the content and the way in which an author has organized his material.

Skimming to find an article that deals with your subject. The following study of insects as part of the children's work in science may demonstrate how practice can be given in this type of skimming.

Have each pupil make an "Insect Sketchbook." Encourage each pupil to skim through reference books to find information about these things: the appearance of each insect; its usefulness or harmfulness; if it is an insect that makes music, the way it makes music. Have each pupil draw pictures of the insect. Then have him supplement information and pictures found in reference books by reports and sketches of facts learned through observation. For example, a child who chooses a spider may have a very interesting section of his book devoted to sketches of spider webs. In this way he can learn that certain kinds of spiders always make a specific number of strokes in their webs: one kind always makes 21 strokes, another 32 strokes, and a third 42 strokes. Often a spider will make a strange design in his web which constitutes his trademark. Every web he weaves will have the same trademark. Opportunity should be given to each pupil to exhibit his sketchbook and explain it to the group.

Skimming to find answers to specific questions. This type of skimming requires consideration of the facts to be found and their relative placement in a story or article.

After the pupils have read a story or an article, give each child a copy of a set of questions based on the story. Tell the children to read each question and think to decide in which part of the story each answer can be found. Then see how quickly they can find the answer. Have them write a sentence that answers the question.

In primary grades ask questions orally and have the children find and read the answers. Encourage the pupils to let their eyes travel rapidly over the material until the desired part is found.

Skimming to locate specific facts. This type of skimming requires a visual picture of a fact to be found. Children should be told to think of how an answer will look—a number for a date, a word beginning with a capital letter for a name. If they have a picture well in mind they can let their eyes travel rapidly across the lines without actually reading them. When the eyes come to a fact, there will be a "mental click" just like a camera snapping a picture.

Directions: Read the story carefully. Read the questions. Then go through the story quickly to find the answers. Write the page number of each answer.

Page

1. What did LaSalle bring back from France?   _____
2. Who got permission from the Seneca Indians?   _____
3. Where did LaSalle land when he returned from France?   _____
4. What did they name the ship they were building?   _____

Make a list of things Champlain brought with him from France.

1.   4.
2.   5.
3.   6.

Write four words that tell what kind of man LaSalle was.

1.   3.
2.   4.

Emphasize that before the children begin to read they should think what the answers will be. Will they be names of foods, pieces of clothing, materials for building? Will they be words that tell about people? Then they should let their eyes travel very fast to find these things.

CHAPTER 13 ✦ DEVELOPING SKILL IN ORGANIZING AND REMEMBERING WHAT IS READ

A GOOD READER must be able to do more than gather meanings from material he reads. He must be able to put these meanings together into an organized whole and make practical applications to solutions of problems he faces. Since the philosophy of modern reading stresses the importance of using reading to accomplish one's purposes, it is necessarily concerned with the development of these skills.

Ability to organize materials develops gradually like other abilities in reading. It is a complex skill interrelated with other reading activities. Skill in organizing depends partly upon children's ability to understand what they read and partly upon their reacting as they read to the significance of various points in the material. They must be able to perceive relationships between what they read and problems they face. A good teacher will help them identify their problems, interpret their experiences, and perceive relationships to enable them to solve their problems. Instruction in this ability must be started in the early primary grades and continued throughout intermediate grades at increasing levels of difficulty as a child matures.

Developing Skill in Organizing What Is Read

Ability to organize is important for many reasons. Effective study habits are dependent upon a student's ability to organize what he reads. Efficient organization enables a student to establish relationships and classify material in such a way that he can recall it readily when he needs to solve a problem. It enables him to secure answers to specific questions, to reorganize material from various sources,

to clarify a point, to list steps in an experiment, and to perform numerous other activities requisite to successful reading.

There are many ways in which information may be organized. Form should be decided by the purpose for which the material is to be used. In the primary grades, listing and summarizing are engaged in frequently. Charts listing duties of various members of a group, experience charts summarizing main points of an excursion, and charts which tell about planning and building a project are used in a classroom. Moving pictures depicting favorite stories children have read, dramatization, and construction of booklets are ways of organizing materials effectively. In intermediate grades, still other ways are used. Pupils may make charts, graphs, and maps of different types. Summarizing, outlining, and note taking are organization activities that are basic for successful reading and study at this level. An important thing for a teacher to remember is that the way in which information is organized must be functional. The form that is used must provide a student with necessary material to help him solve his problem.

Efficient organization of what is read requires skill in several reading abilities. The abilities to sense sequence or orderly happening of events within a story or article, to classify or group ideas, to identify the main idea of a selection, to locate details to support a main idea, to relate main ideas and details in acceptable outline form, to take notes, to summarize material, and to use organization keys are essential if children are to be successful in reorganizing material in light of their own purposes.

A brief discussion of some of these abilities with a few suggested exercises for their development is given here. These exercises typify some that have been used successfully. A teacher will want to adjust the exercises to the maturity levels of her children. In addition she will find many other opportunities to provide practice in these skills according to pupil needs.

Since the abilities to sense sequence or orderly happening of events, to identify the main idea of a selection, and to locate details have been discussed in the previous chapter dealing with the de-

velopment of skill in understanding what is read, they will be omitted here.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN CLASSIFYING OR GROUPING IDEAS

Classifying or grouping factual material is an organization skill that is valuable throughout life. Facts grouped around several main ideas or classifications are recalled much more easily than numerous isolated facts because the relationships between specific items of information are seen.

CLASSIFICATION EXERCISES. A foundation for skill in classifying ideas may be built in primary grades through the use of classification exercises. An adaptation of the game of "Authors" is an enjoyable way of developing the first steps.

Have four cards to a set. Sets may be toys, animals, food, or any other headings suitable at the time. Distribute the cards. Each child looks at his cards, decides of which kind he has the most, and attempts to complete his set.

Vary the game by placing heading cards on a table. Distribute small cards. Each child says the word on his card and places it under the proper heading.

LIBRARY TABLE EXHIBITS. In intermediate grades children may classify material around specific topics for a library table exhibit. The following exercise could be used, for example, in developing a social studies activity of the United States.

Have the children find pictures and stories on subjects such as Machines Used on a Farm, Fun on a Farm, The Value of Rivers, The Mississippi River, Dams and Their Uses. Let them organize the material and arrange it on a library table so that it may be of value to all pupils.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN RELATING MAIN IDEAS AND DETAILS IN OUTLINE FORM

When children are adept at putting stories in order and in finding the main thought of a paragraph, they should be taught to outline. Outlining is an organization skill which will help children tremendously in their study of content subjects, such as social studies. It will

enable them to save a lot of time in studying in high school and college.

The simplest kind of outline is that in which children fill in the main points.

Directions: Read the story. There are three main ideas in the story. Write each main idea beside its number. The first one is done for you.

    I. The work of Count Zeppelin
   II.
   III.

When children are able to complete outlines of main points, give them practice in filling in outlines of details.

Directions: Read the story. Here are the main ideas of the story. Fill in blank spaces with important facts that help to make the main ideas clear.

    I. Work of Count Zeppelin
       A. He plans a cigar-shaped balloon
       B. He makes his first successful flight in 1900
   II. Invention of the autogiro
       A.
       B.
       C.
  III. Development of airplanes by 1930
       A.
       B.
       C.

Helping children learn to develop an outline in this manner will enable them to take a final step: creating a complete outline from reference material. Be sure to use material of factual nature that is well organized and has a definite, readily seen structure. Teach the children from the beginning to use a standard form of outline. It is well to write on a chalkboard an outline form to be filled in to guide pupils in the number of main points and details which need to be found.

I.
   A.
   B.
   C.
II.
   A.
   B.
III.
   A.
   B.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN SUMMARIZING MATERIAL

Summarizing is a natural activity for elementary-level children. When they first express themselves orally in building experience stories at the beginning primary level, they are making little summaries. It is a basic organization activity. A pupil must choose the important concepts and telescope them. He must reconstruct facts in a way to give an overview of the material.

This skill must be systematically developed from the time a child begins to read. Many different forms of summarization should be utilized. Pictorial presentation of facts in summary form, such as comic strips, graphs, charts, and maps of different types, should be used, as well as verbal forms. Care should be taken to adjust the form used to the maturity levels of children.

EXPERIENCE CHARTS. Primary-grade children can make an experience chart with the help of the teacher. She should encourage the children to talk about their experiences on the way to school and develop with them a chart of the most interesting experience. The chart should be completed with children's assistance and, when it is completed, it should be placed where they will have easy access to it. It should be referred to at regular intervals to help the children recall the story and to motivate them to recall other experiences they have enjoyed.

The chart below was written by a first grade of Roosevelt School, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

October 8

Carolyn's dog came to school.
Marie's butterfly came to school.
Larry's turtle came to school.
Miss Meston's caterpillar came to school.
This is the end of our newspaper.

DIORAMAS. Pictorial summarizing at intermediate age level might be in the form of dioramas. Have pupils make a list of the main episodes in a story and write the episodes on a chalkboard. Have each pupil select one episode and make a scene about it as follows:

Cardboard cartons with the top and one side cut off make good stages. Clay, cardboard, or pipe-cleaner figures may be used. When dioramas have been completed have them displayed in correct sequential order around the room. Give each pupil opportunity to display his diorama and to tell the part of the story he depicts.

CHARACTER SKETCHES. This activity provides children with interesting practice in summarizing verbally what they have read.

Have each pupil select three characters from stories in his book and write a short paragraph to describe each one and his work without naming the character. Then have each pupil read his character sketch aloud to see if the other pupils can tell who it is.

PICTURE ESSAYS. Pictorial summarization at any level may take the form of picture essays.

Have each pupil find in reference books, scientific or geographic journals, stories of some difficult work performed among people of a faraway country. After a pupil has selected a story he wishes to study, have him make a series of pictures to tell the story. Let him show his pictures in sequential order to tell his story to the class.

DEVELOPING SKILL IN TAKING NOTES

Note taking is a very valuable organization skill that is functional throughout life. Average and more mature readers can profit by instruction in it. It is well to postpone instruction with less mature readers until they have mastered the other organization skills upon which note taking depends. Children should be proficient in differ-

entiating major points from minor points, deciding what is worth recording, establishing relationship of one idea to another, and rephrasing an author's idea into an accurate, concise restatement in their own words. If they are introduced to this activity before these skills have been established, they will form a bad habit of copying sentences verbatim with little or no comprehension from material read.

Ability to select a key or topic sentence is necessary for skill in note taking. After the children have read a story duplicate directions such as follows.

> A long paragraph usually has one sentence that tells the thought of a paragraph. This sentence is called a key or topic sentence. Find and write key sentences for the paragraphs below.

Par. 1, p. 270: _____
Par. 4, p. 278: _____
Par. 5, p. 282: _____
Par. 1, p. 285: _____

DEVELOPING THE ABILITY TO SEE RELATIONSHIPS

PROVING STATEMENTS. Have children select statements from a factual story and find in a selection several facts that prove the statements true. For example, in a story about artists, one statement selected might be "Bellows painted quiet pictures and pictures of furious action."

Give pupils opportunity to discuss the proof they found for each statement. Direct a discussion so that they see the relationship of each statement to the entire selection.

MAKING REPORTS. Have pupils select and plan reports of topics of current interest. Encourage them to find as much information as possible, then to organize notes they have taken to make a brief, interesting report. Give them opportunity to make illustrations to use in giving their reports. Some topics of interest in science might be:

How Birds Help Us
Controlling Soil Erosion

The Value of Forests
Damage Done by Fire

Developing Skill in Remembering
What Is Read

Many people understand what they read when they are reading it, but cannot remember it later. Yet the ability to remember material is fundamentally important in thinking and in speaking. Retention is an important study skill. It is dependent upon the ability to organize what is read. In taking part in a discussion, in making a report, in retelling a story, in preparing to take a test, in solving problems, and in many other activities pupils must decide which ideas to retain. In addition they must be able to organize these ideas in such a way that they will be retained for effective use.

There is evidence that instruction in remembering what is read greatly increases efficiency of pupils in various types of school work. It helps them to interpret material more meaningfully because their attention is directed toward an understanding of relationships and ideas. Children find meaning only if they are taught to look for it. Instruction should be spread throughout the elementary career. Skills that are essential to good retention should be introduced in order of difficulty and at a time when the pupils have need for them. Careful adjustment should be made for individual differences. Children should be expected to learn only those skills which are functional and for which a need has been established.

ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING SKILL IN REMEMBERING WHAT IS READ

LEARNING AND APPLYING PRINCIPLES FOR REMEMBERING. On developing ability for remembering, children can be greatly aided by correct application of generally accepted principles of learning. These rules need to be taught in a functional manner so that they will be

understood and applied. Children should be guided in this respect according to the following principles:

1. *Always read with a purpose.* The type of retention varies with the purpose. It depends upon the problem to be solved. Sometimes children will need to memorize the material verbatim; they may need to retain main ideas only; they may need to retain main ideas and some details; they may need to rephrase ideas in their own words. Purpose will control the way in which material is read.

2. *Make material meaningful.* Making rich meaning associations, relating ideas to their own experiences, and stressing human values help in retention.

3. *Intend to remember.* An active intention to remember helps recall. Pupils should be given guidance in learning to concentrate.

4. *Select what to remember while reading.* An attempt to remember everything one reads leads to confusion.

5. *Read material more than one time.* It is estimated a student remembers 25 to 50 percent of what he has read after a single reading.

6. *Spend time in self-recitation.* Read material, then close the book and try to recall. Reread sections that cannot be recalled clearly, and try to recall again. There is evidence that pupils remember much more material when a portion of study time is allotted to self-recitation.

7. *Record ideas.* Underlining, outlining, summarizing, making notes, or writing out questions on the material is helpful to many people. Material that is well organized is easier to remember.

8. *Use what is to be remembered.* Material is retained longer and more efficiently if it is put to immediate use. Making movies, dramatizing a story, making reports, commenting on radio programs, solving problems, or using the information in other ways helps to make learnings more permanent.

Children will be greatly assisted in developing ability to remember by using interesting materials and well-motivated exercises since the effort expended to remember is dependent upon one's interest in an activity.

STICK-PUPPET PLAY. Dramatizations give children opportunity to remember what they have read for an interesting purpose. To reproduce a story effectively, the main idea and certain important details must be organized sequentially and recalled. A stick-puppet play can be used by children of many different maturity levels. The teacher should first have the pupils reread a story to decide which scenes they wish to use in the puppet play, and a list of the scenes chosen should be written on a chalkboard.

Have pupils draw and color figures they need for each scene. They should fasten each figure to a ruler or stick with a thumbtack. In presenting a puppet play, each pupil working a puppet should stand behind a screen and extend his puppet above the scenery. Pupils should improvise conversation as they present a play. An announcer should introduce the play and give any necessary explanation between scenes.

A STORYBOOK FRIEZE. Memory of main ideas over a prolonged time may be fostered by making a storybook frieze. The activity is suitable for primary- or intermediate-level children.

Have pupils draw, color, and cut out characters and properties from their best-liked stories. Have each pupil arrange and paste his pictures along with those developed by others on a long piece of shelf paper. When a frieze is in place, have each pupil tell the story he illustrated and what each of his pictures shows.

QUIZ PROGRAM. An activity that appeals to intermediate-level children is a quiz program. It may be used to help children learn to select and remember important details. Care should be taken that the major ideas which bear a definite relationship to the concepts developed in a story or article are selected for questions. Questions involving insignificant or unrelated details should be avoided lest children break down their habits of discriminatory reading and try to remember everything they read regardless of its value or relationship to a whole story.

Have each pupil write five questions about a story, each on a separate slip of paper. On the back of each slip he should write the answer to the question. Have all questions put into a box. Select a leader or master of ceremonies. Have the leader select a pupil to reach into the box, pull

out a slip of paper, and hand it to the leader. The leader should read the question for the other pupil to answer. The leader should then determine from the answer written on the back of the slip whether the question was answered correctly. If he did answer correctly, the contestant should keep the slip of paper; if not, he should return it to the box. A pupil who has collected most slips of paper at the end of a game is the winner.

MEMORY GAMES. Ability to concentrate is an important aspect of reading to remember. Memory games such as "I Am Happy" require children to listen carefully and to concentrate on what is being said. It is enjoyed by children of all levels and can be used effectively when a group may have to wait a few minutes before going to the auditorium or lunchroom.

Select a pupil to start the game and have him choose something that makes him happy, such as "I am happy I can see." The next pupil should repeat what the first pupil said and add something that makes him happy. The word he selects, however, must start with the last sound in *see*. For example, "I am happy I can see and eat." The next pupil continues the game by saying, "I am happy I can see and eat and talk." The next word in the list would begin with the *k* sound. The game should proceed until none of the pupils can think of a word to add to the list or can remember the list. Then start the game again with a new word. Pupils may only be able to list two or three words at a time.

CHAPTER 14 ✦ DEVELOPING SKILL IN LOCATING INFORMATION

ONE OF THE MOST important things in life is to be able to find what we want to know. It is not possible or desirable to try to remember everything we read. The first task children need to perform when they are confronted with a problem is to identify the problem. After they can answer the question "What do we want to know?" the next step is to discuss where the information may be found. One rich source of information is books. Many times children can satisfy their needs through reading, but they must be given help in finding information that is relevant to their problems.

A substantial part of the reading program at every level should be devoted to how children can find the information they need. Their needs will dictate the specific nature of the instruction. Skills that are essential should be developed in situations which have real purpose for learners. Probably some of the earliest needs of children are abilities to locate pictures, to find and read page numbers, and to use the table of contents. As children mature they need to learn how to use effectively the other aids that are included in their books. During the primary period they should learn how to use libraries. An unceasing need to use libraries and various types of reference materials will extend throughout the elementary career. Skills, abilities, and information which make possible the wise and efficient use of these materials should be developed at this time. The best instruction will come through actual solution of real problems.

Important Sources of Information for Children

An elementary-school program of instruction in location of data should provide experiences leading children to independence in

using materials that will satisfy their needs. There are four main sources which children at this level can learn to use profitably.

Textbooks. One source of information is a book. As children become sufficiently mature they should be taught the function and location of principal parts of a book: title, preface, table of contents, lists of maps, illustrations, figures, paragraphs, chapters, sectional headings, glossary, footnotes, index, and appendix.

General reference books. A second source of information is a general reference book. Often a successful student is distinguished from an unsuccessful one by his skill in using dictionary, encyclopedia, and general reference books. Children need to be guided in understanding the many functions of a dictionary and use of the *World Almanac.* They should have knowledge of the variety of information that can be found there. They should develop an understanding of the functions and skill in the use of a library card file and the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature,* in which will be found references to periodicals and to books containing pertinent information.

Specialized reference books. Specialized references afford a third source of information. The atlas, telephone directory, and similar materials contain a wealth of information. Many adults are unaware of the functions of these books. With a telephone directory, for example, every child should learn where to find emergency phone numbers quickly; he should know the general information that is provided, how to use a local telephone most efficiently, how to place an out-of-town call if necessary, and how to use the classified section; he should learn to use any other information a local directory provides, such as postal unit zone maps.

Pictorial and graphic materials. Pictures, maps, graphs, and tabular materials furnish a fourth source of information. Through these aids a large body of information can be gained in a relatively short time. Their use in communication is increasing constantly. Children must be taught how to read them. Initial instruction in reading graphic and tabular materials should arise out of regular class activities. Many experiences must be given as children mature.

Because this is not strictly a literary type of material, teachers often neglect to help children develop techniques by which they can find ideas in various kinds of diagrams.

A striking characteristic of a successful primary teacher is the way she teaches the reading of pictures. In intermediate grades skilled teachers spend considerable time with children in reading pictorial materials. Modern textbooks have beautiful pictures, maps, and graphs, each of which shows many interesting facts. Teachers complain that some children are unable to read geography or social studies books. Yet children who are very immature in reading verbal materials can gain an amazing amount of information if they are guided in developing techniques by which they can find ideas in pictorial or graphic materials.

To read these materials successfully, one must have certain understandings and abilities. Children need to understand that pictures and graphic materials must be read, not given a cursory glance. They need to develop a habit of studying pictorial materials. They must learn to read these materials for an understanding of relationships. For example, a child studying a geographical picture of a part of a country would note facts such as the types of homes depicted, the dress of the people, the kind of land. He might relate these facts to climatic conditions and to the work activities of the people.

After the children have studied graphic materials, there should be a discussion always to help them establish a habit of thinking about and interpreting their observations. A habit of reading pictorial materials over and over again should be established. Each time a child observes a picture, for example, he will see more if he is guided to look at it for a different purpose. Wise use of pictorial and graphic materials will add life and interest to the reading sources children are using.

Skills Needed to Locate Information

Intelligent and efficient use of these sources of information requires the ability to locate information. This, however, is a hier-

archy of subskills. It is essential that children have experiences which enable them to perform these subskills effectively. It is important, therefore, for teachers to understand what subskills are prerequisite to the successful locating of information. Some more important skills that need to be developed are as follows:

1. Ability to skim rapidly to locate information pertinent to a problem
2. Ability to alphabetize
3. Ability to interpret certain diacritical markings
4. Ability to choose a key word to look for in an index
5. Knowledge of different headings under which material might be found
6. Ability to use a cross reference
7. Understanding the meaning of a dash, comma, semicolon, bold-face type, and other markings
8. Knowledge of a standard system of classifying books
9. Ability to evalute the usefulness of various sources of information in satisfying needs for different kinds of information

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP SKILL IN LOCATING INFORMATION

To ensure effective instruction in locating data a program must be motivated in such a way that children see a need to use this skill. When a need has been felt, definite lessons in each specific skill using suitable material should be provided. Special exercises which give additional practice when needed should be used. Opportunities to use the skills learned should be offered whenever possible in content subjects. Provision should be made also to enable children to evaluate their work periodically and to see their progress in the skills. Systematic sequential instruction is essential to enable children to become proficient in locating information.

Suggestions for direct instruction in various skills and subskills that comprise the ability to locate information may be found in teachers' manuals for recent reading textbook series. These skills are introduced in meaningful situations. Some interesting activities that will provide additional practice in locating material in various

sources that elementary children can use profitably are presented here.

Books. The ability to make use of different parts of a reference book or textbook helps immeasurably in locating information. Opportunities for gaining experience in the use of books abound in the daily activities of a child. When a need to use a specific part of a book has been established, systematic instruction in the functions and use of the part should be given. Some exercises for practice in using several parts of a book are as follows.

TABLE OF CONTENTS. Familiarity with the purpose and place of a table of contents should begin with a child's first reading book. The table of contents may be in picture form in a first preprimer. It is important that children establish a habit of looking at it to determine kinds of stories they will find. Beginning with the second preprimer level, children locate a story they are going to read in a table of contents before turning to the story itself.

An introduction to a table of contents at first preprimer level follows:

Have children turn to the contents. Direct their attention to the characters. When they have named and talked about the characters, tell them that they will find stories in the book about each of the people. Give them an opportunity to find each character in the book. Have them turn again to the contents to decide about which person they would like best to read. Let each child discuss why he thinks he will like stories about the person he has chosen. Have children anticipate what some of the stories will tell. Conclude the lesson when it is obvious that children are curious to read stories about the pictures.

INDEX. An index is perhaps the most widely used aid in locating information in a book. It is a great timesaver to those who are able to use it efficiently. Systematic instruction and practice should be given from the time children begin to use books that contain an index.

The first lesson should start with a problem for which children are seeking information. Help them decide the most probable heading under which the information might be found. List other headings

or topics to check. Have children examine an index to see that it is arranged alphabetically. When they find a page reference have them skim the pages to find usable information. During subsequent lessons develop meaning and interpretation of abbreviations that are commonly used in an index. Provide opportunities for understanding and learning to use cross references—*see* and *see also*. During the study of an index children should understand that many indexes include the following parts:

1. A key which explains symbols used with a page number. Symbols are sometimes used to specify maps, pictures, graphs.
2. Numbers in boldface type to specify important pages, as 303–321.
3. Subtopics arranged alphabetically under a topic.
4. Pronunciation aids for difficult words.
5. Cross references.

A typical experience in using an index might be as follows, for example, for children who have become interested in knowing more about Switzerland.

Encourage the children to discuss where they would be likely to find information about Switzerland: encyclopedia, geography book, history book, atlas. Then list on the chalkboard topics about which children want information. Have them decide under what headings they might find this information, such as, *Switzerland:* population, history, climate, customs, food, work activities, homes, clothing. Have each heading written on a separate card, as, Switzerland—customs. Then have each pupil list under this heading all references (title of book, author, page reference) found concerning the topic.

When pupils have found all the references for the topic selected, give them an opportunity to discuss how they found the information and how cross references were used. Direct the discussion so that pupils are aware of the values to be derived from being able to locate references quickly and easily. After a discussion let each child use his references to make a report about the information he found on his topic.

BIBLIOGRAPHY. Knowledge of the function and use of a bibliography is important in being able to locate information quickly. Profitable experiences may be had in the use of a bibliography by

having children make one of their own for classroom use. The following procedure might be used.

Provide cards about 3 inches wide and 5 inches long and a box in which to file them. Have the box labeled "Books About Other Lands." Then have pupils look in library and reference books to find information about lands they have visited in stories. Have each pupil write on one card the title of the book, author, publisher, pages on which information is found, and type of information. Then have them file the cards alphabetically by subjects. Encourage the pupils to find poems and stories about each of these countries and to make and file cards for them. Whenever pupils need information about a country, have them look through the card file to select the book, story, or poem they wish. Encourage them to add to the card file as they study about other countries in this book, in their histories, or in their geographies.

General references. It was stated previously that the successful student is distinguished from the unsuccessful one by his skill in using the dictionary, encyclopedia, and general reference books. Direct instruction is requisite for adequate development of this skill. All lessons should be an outgrowth of pupils' need for information.

DICTIONARY. Use of a dictionary as a means of finding word meanings, pronunciation, spelling and word derivation was discussed in the section on development of vocabulary. This is only one of many uses of a dictionary, however. Many people are unaware of the wealth of information a dictionary contains and the purposes it serves. For this reason opportunity should be given to pupils to explore a dictionary and to use it to locate essential information pertinent to their problems.

Let children explore several dictionaries. Then have them make a classroom chart of dictionary information and where it is found in each dictionary. Questions for a chart might be as follows:

1. In what part do you find Biblical names?
2. Where are idiomatic phrases?
3. Where can you find meanings of foreign words and phrases?
4. Are there rules for spelling and pronunciation?
5. Can you find common signs you often see in print, such as weather, highway, medical, money values, and many other signs?

6. Does a dictionary have pictures and illustrations?
7. Are there flags from all over the world?
8. Is there a story about development of the English language?
9. Can you find meanings of common names?
10. Can you find synonyms and antonyms?
11. What other things can you find in a dictionary?

USING THE LIBRARY. Many people do not appreciate the value or pleasure that can be had from wide reading because they do not know how to use a library. Adults sometimes hesitate to enter a public library because they are afraid they will not know what to do. To prevent this feeling in later life, children should be taught the proper use of library resources. In early primary grades they should set up and operate their own libraries. At a higher level, instruction should include use of a library card catalogue, *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, and other indexes. It should give children an understanding of how books are arranged in a library and of the Dewey decimal system of classification.

The best time to teach use of a library is in actual process of doing extended reading in connection with a classroom activity. An activity of this type is given here.

After children have read the story of "William Tell" or some other hero, let them plan a program of "Legendary Heroes Around the World." Have each child find a story about a legendary hero. Here are some that are interesting to pupils of intermediate grades:

> Heroes of Scandinavia:
> The Story of Frithiof
> Havelock
> The Vikings
> Hero of Germany:
> Siegfried
> Hero of France:
> Roland
> Hero of Spain:
> The Cid
> Hero of Persia:
> Rustam

Heroes of Greece and Rome:
The Argonauts
The Perilous Voyage of Aeneas
Heroes of Great Britain:
Sir Galahad and the Sacred Cup
Guy of Warwick

When each pupil has read his story, have him prepare a short report. This report should include a brief discussion of the country and its location on a world map, a short summary of interesting points leading to the climax, and an oral reading of selected parts of the story. A report should not tell how the story ended. If a reporter leaves the audience at an exciting point and suggests that pupils read the story to find out for themselves, there will be strong motives for reading.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS.   These are among the best sources of information children will use. They need to become familiar with and proficient in the use of these books to find information relevant to their problems. Although practice in use of an encyclopedia should stem from actual classroom needs, it is necessary to provide direct instruction also. The following is an example.

Have pupils tell who they think are the most interesting people or what they think are the most interesting places about which they have read. Have each of these names of people or places written on a chalkboard. Then, from encyclopedias in the room, write on a chalkboard the volume number and letter (or letters) in that volume for each volume in the set, as Vol. I, A; Vol. II, B; Vol. III, C; Vol. IV, D, E; etc. Explain or have pupils explain that Volume I tells about things that begin with A, etc. Have pupils tell in which volume they would look to find *Peter Stuyvesant*. Be sure that the pupils are aware that they would look for *Stuyvesant, Peter*, in the S volume, but that *Hudson Bay* and *Hudson River* would be located in the *H* volume.

Have pupils tell in which volume they would look for each person or place in the list on the chalkboard. Then have each pupil locate in an encyclopedia one or more people or places in the list.

Summarize with pupils some important things to remember when using an encyclopedia:

1. Always look for the last name of a person.
2. If words have two or more parts, as *Hudson Bay*, look for the first part, as *Hudson*.

3. Do not look for abbreviations of words. A word like *Mt. Clemens* would be found under *Mount.*

Special references.

ATLAS.   There are many opportunities in a classroom for using an atlas. Social studies instruction, trips children have made, or stories about certain localities may spark an interest in further information. For example, "travel talks" will afford many opportunities for direct instruction in the use of an atlas. The following activity will give children experience in using an atlas.

Give each child an opportunity to select the most interesting points of a well-planned imaginary trip. Have each pupil make pictures to illustrate what he thinks are the most interesting highlights. Then give each pupil opportunity to prepare to tell about the trip. When the reports are given, have each pupil show his pictures and tell facts about the history and geography of the country through which he passed.

During the preparation of a report, instruction in use of an atlas might include:

An understanding of what an atlas is

How to find places in the index

How to interpret abbreviations that are used

How to find the places on a map

How to read maps

How to find population of cities

How to locate highways, air routes, and railroads

Where to locate other interesting information that might be applicable to their reports

SPECIALIZED ENCYCLOPEDIAS.   A specialized encyclopedia is very helpful when children need to locate information about certain topics. Complete information is given more frequently in a specialized encyclopedia than in other sources. The following activity is a type of classroom procedure that will help children appreciate and learn to use one of the specialized encyclopedias—*The Junior Book of Authors.*

Encourage the children to make a collection of pictures of well-known authors. As the collection is made help children gather information regarding the life of each author. Introduce them to the *Junior Book of*

Authors and help them learn to use it. After the necessary information has been gathered, have each pupil take part in a presentation of the authors. Each participant should take his position in line; when his turn comes he should display the picture he has selected and tell briefly the life history of the author as if he were that individual.

TELEPHONE DIRECTORIES.   Children may learn to use the telephone directory efficiently through original dramatizations. Let the children plan, write, and act out scenes which depict situations in which the use of a telephone book becomes functional. Scenes such as the following may be used:

> A house on fire
> A burglar in the house
> A serious sickness or an accident in the home
> A visit with a friend
> A call to grandmother in a neighboring town
> Locating a plumber to fix a leaking pipe

Graphic material.   Experiences must be given in reading many types of graphic materials. Opportunities should be provided when there is a need for them. Suggested activities for several types of graphic materials are given here.

PICTURES.   Reading pictures to develop the ability to comprehend and to draw correct inferences from the facts observed has already been discussed. Habits of analyzing pictorial materials for information should be fostered throughout the children's elementary career. The skill needed to read geographical and historical pictures should be developed in basic reading instruction as well as during social studies periods. For example, for reading the pictures on page 235 the following questions may be used to guide interpretation.

> 1. What kind of countryside is shown?
> 2. What part of the United States do you think it is? Why?
> 3. Why is hay used for fuel?
> 4. What kind of weather is shown?
> 5. What time of day is it?
> 6. Is the wind blowing?
> 7. How do children feel toward their teacher?
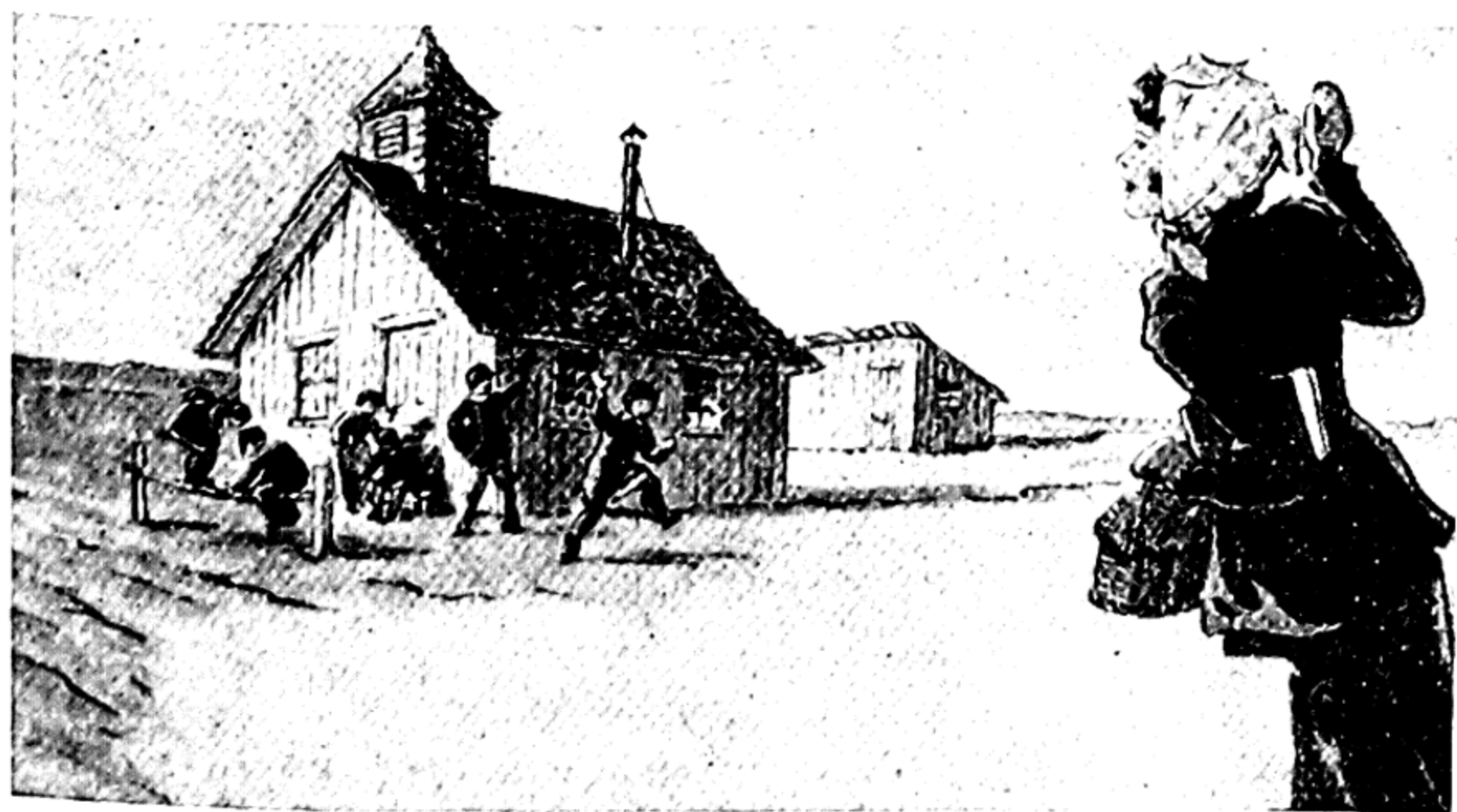
Reading pictures

Further discussion of the use of pictures with textfilm instruction is given in Part Seven, "A Teacher Improves Classroom Instruction."

MAPS. Children who learn to read maps effectively can gain much information in a very short time. This skill can be introduced in first grade through planning and constructing a classroom map.

Take a large sheet of wrapping paper. Lay it on the floor. Plan with the children where to draw the library corner, the teacher's desk, their tables and chairs, and other points of interest in a classroom. Mount the map under a chalkboard ledge or on a bulletin board. Play games with the children in which they show where the things in the classroom are located on the map.

A community map showing children's houses and streets is valuable for second- and third-graders to construct. The difficulty of a map should be adjusted to the maturity level of the children.

Children of the intermediate grades should learn to read the scale on a map and different kinds of maps, such as physical and political population, ocean, climatic, vegetation, and economic maps, that appear in meaningful situations. If a need arises they may learn to read ocean communication and world comparison maps.

From reading maps children should be able to obtain the following types of information:

1. Altitude of land
2. Location of rivers, oceans, or other bodies of water
3. Names of large cities
4. Location of any mountain ranges
5. Number of inhabitants per square mile (on a map showing density of population)
6. Amount of rainfall (on a climatic map)
7. Depths of the various parts of an ocean
8. Type of vegetation (on a vegetation map)
9. Important railroads, airways, or other travel routes (on a transportation map)
10. Kind and number of cattle produced (on a products map)
11. How to use latitude and longitude to locate places

WEATHER FLAGS. In a study of science, learning to understand

and use weather flags is interesting to many children. It helps them become aware of different means of communication.

Have pupils make their own signals. A flag is square, a pennant is triangular. Then let them set up a weather service according to directions. The signals for weather service are as follows:

1. A white flag indicates clear or fair weather.
2. A blue flag indicates rain or snow.
3. A black pennant indicates temperature.
   a. When placed *above* a white flag or a blue flag, a black pennant indicates warmer weather.
   b. When placed *below* a white flag or a blue flag, a black pennant indicates colder weather.
4. A white flag with a black center indicates a sudden fall in temperature (45 degrees or colder).
5. A flag half white and half blue indicates local rain or snow.
   a. When a black pennant is placed *above* it, warmer weather is indicated.
   b. When a black pennant is placed *below* it, colder weather is indicated.
6. A red flag with a black center indicates a storm of unusual violence.
   a. A white pennant placed *above* it indicates the approach of violence with *northwest* winds.
   b. A white pennant placed *below* it indicates the approach of a storm of violence with *southwest* winds.
   c. A red pennant placed *above* it indicates the approach of a storm of violence with *northeast* winds.
   d. A red pennant placed *below* it indicates the approach of a storm of violence with *southeast* winds.

Every morning have the children read or get a radio report of the weather forecast. Then have them display the proper weather flags. Give different pupils an opportunity to read the daily forecast as shown by the flags.

CHAPTER 15 ✦ DEVELOPING SKILL IN READING ALOUD

A WELL-BALANCED PROGRAM that includes both oral and silent reading is essential for balanced growth and full development. There are times for every child when it is essential that he read aloud. To be able to do it well means added security and personal satisfaction. Although silent reading is faster and is used in about 95 percent of adult reading situations, reading aloud is necessary and vitally important on certain occasions.

Oral reading is a form of communication. It is an integral part of a language arts program. Children live in a communicating world. Mastery of each tool that allows self-expression enables them to develop more fully their potential abilities. Oral reading gives them opportunities to interpret a printed page in their own way.

The question is not whether to teach oral or silent reading, but how we can combine the two types of reading to enable children to express themselves most clearly. Skillful planning is essential for a well-balanced program. In oral reading children must do all that is necessary for silent reading. In addition they must be able to time their reading, interpret printed symbols, and express thoughts in such a way as to enable listeners to think with the reader. For this reason oral reading must be taught as a skill.

Oral reading is important in a program because of its personal, social, and diagnostic values. It contributes to the development of an individual by giving him poise and a sense of security. A child who can stand before an audience and hold its interest gains a feeling of personal satisfaction. This experience makes a child more aware of a need to speak accurately, clearly, and expressively. It enables a child to have a greater appreciation of expressive words and phrases in literature.

Socially, oral reading provides a common basis for discussion and exchange of ideas. It helps children to improve their conversation. It enables them to share their enjoyment of literary materials.

The diagnostic value of oral reading is evident. Difficulties resulting from inability to recognize words effectively, to phrase properly, to interpret punctuation marks, to interpret thought, to enunciate clearly, and to speak properly are easily recognized when a child reads aloud. Many times oral reading will reveal the reasons why a child has failed to progress satisfactorily.

Certain values of oral reading can be measured. Appreciation, pleasure, and interest in further reading resulting from enthusiasm of a shared experience are real but difficult to evaluate.

There are many opportunities in a classroom for children to read orally. Every oral reading experience should be an enjoyable one arising from the needs of a group. Reading to prove a point; sharing an exciting, happy, or sad part of a story; reading answers to specific questions; reading reports, directions, riddles, announcements, or problems; reading information not available to a group; reading plays and dramatizations; choral reading—these are a few ways in which oral reading can come naturally into a well-balanced program.

The value of oral reading can be realized only if the skill is developed wisely. The methods employed in developing the skill are of the utmost importance. Unless it is done well, confusion and emotional blockings will result. Unless a wise balance between silent reading and oral reading is maintained, slow and laborious readers will be produced. There is probably no other aspect of reading that can be as detrimental to a child's development as that caused by poor instruction in oral reading. Emotional reactions may be severe and result in a hatred of all reading situations or in severe language and personality disorders. An instructional program must be carried out intelligently and conscientiously if it is to be valuable in helping children develop to their fullest capacities.

Oral-reading experiences should be enjoyable. Material should be free from reading difficulties. All situations that might cause embarrassment should be avoided. If a child hesitates in reading orally, a teacher should supply the word immediately and quietly. Children should be taught to "talk" a story. It is important that they understand that the material they are reading is something an author is

saying to them, that when they read orally they must read the way they think an author would sound if he were talking to them. When children grasp the idea that reading is talking, they will read with natural expression.

Oral reading is a complex skill because a reader, in addition to recognizing words and interpreting the material himself, must let his audience know how he feels about it. He must give some thought to his appearance before a group and to the behavior of an audience. For this reason silent reading should always precede oral reading. A story should be read silently first for meaning and to enable a reader to work out any vocabulary difficulties before he faces a group. In this way he can face an audience with calmness and confidence. A child who is forced to stumble through unfamiliar material feels confused and inadequate and fails to interpret material to listeners. Children who have speech difficulties should not be required to read before a group until they have overcome them. Never should a "barber shop" procedure be used in oral reading— that is a practice of reading aloud around a class with no opportunity for previous preparation. Such a practice leads to word-for-word reading and frequently to emotional disturbances with a resulting hatred of oral reading. There should be preparation and establishment of a purpose for reading orally, always.

A true audience situation should be used in oral reading. Children in a group should not be asked to follow in their books while one child reads aloud. The practice of having one child read while others follow is hard to justify. It causes many confusions and breaks down habits of efficient reading. Children in a group who read more slowly than the one who is reading aloud receive a wrong auditory impression for a visual symbol. For example, in the sentence "The kettle jumped through the rich man's window" the follower may be looking at the word *through* when a reader pronounces the word *window*. If he has had difficulty with the word *through*, he becomes more confused because he recognizes that Johnny, who is reading orally, is a good reader and that teacher does not stop to correct Johnny; therefore *through* must be pronounced *window*. Tomorrow

the teacher is entirely unable to explain why Billy says *window* when he looks at the word *through.*

On the other hand, a better reader suffers also as he attempts to follow conscientiously one who reads more slowly than he, pacing his eye movements to those of the reader. He will break down rhythmic sweeps across a page that both he and a teacher have worked so hard to develop. Since pictures of eye movements of children made while reading show that no two people have identical eye movements in following a line of print, an efficient procedure is to have the other children close their books and listen while one child reads orally. There must be a purpose established for listening. Children should be asked to listen to hear the answer to a question, to find out what kind of child Mary was, to tell what they think is a most exciting part, or for many other reasons. In this way habits of effective listening are established, confusions are avoided, and a reader feels more responsibility for reading clearly and meaningfully.

Time allotment for oral reading is dependent upon the needs of a group. In beginning reading, the focusing of eyes of the children is so inaccurate and fixations are so numerous that silent reading is no faster than oral reading. Since reading is an outgrowth of oral language, a child receives satisfaction from hearing himself say a word as he sees it. Thus silent reading is more or less oral, regardless of how it is taught. It is important, however, to establish at this time a habit of reading silently to permit children an opportunity to recognize symbols and interpret thought. A teacher who asks children to read with their eyes the sentence "Come here, Tippy" to find out what Jack said to his dog when he wanted him to come, fosters a habit of meaningful interpretative reading. During this period there should be a fifty-fifty ratio. Everything that is read silently should be read orally.

At high second- or third-reader level the eyes of a child begin to travel faster than he can express himself. At this time a gradual decrease in ratio of oral to silent reading should be made. The amount of time spent reading silently should be greater than that

spent in oral reading. At fourth-reader level not more than about one-third of the time should be spent reading orally. At fifth- and sixth-reader levels there should be a continued decrease in time allotment for oral reading. At high sixth-reader level not more than about 20 percent of the time should be spent reading orally.

A gradual decrease in the time allotment for oral reading is important as children mature. Too much time spent in reading orally will produce slow readers. Children can read orally in a clear and expressive manner at a rate of about 150 words per minute. As soon as the silent reading speed of children exceeds that rate they must retard their eyes in order to keep them from getting ahead of their voices. A well-balanced program that will foster ability to read well orally without sacrificing silent reading skills must be planned.

Standards for good oral reading should be established cooperatively by pupils and teacher. This procedure is more effective than any amount of criticism of a reader by a teacher. Rules should be few and stated in the words of the children. A chart of the rules formulated should be placed in the classroom so that the children can refer to it frequently. The following chart was made by a group of middle-grade children.

A Good Reader

1. Has a purpose for reading aloud.
2. Prepares his materials ahead of time.
3. Makes his voice show the feelings of the story.
4. Pronounces each word clearly so his listeners can understand.
5. Reads ideas, not words.
6. Changes his rate of reading. He reads faster to show excitement and slower to show quiet.
7. Learns to breathe at the right places so that his breathing will be smooth and easy.

A Good Listener

1. Listens for a purpose.
2. Listen quietly and courteously until the reader has finished.
3. Is careful not to interrupt the reader.
4. Is able to discuss what has been read.

EXERCISES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF SEVERAL ASPECTS OF ORAL READING

The teacher should be careful that a child does not try to read something orally that he is not capable of reading. Audience reading should be attempted only if the teacher knows that it can be done successfully. It is unfair to a reader and to listeners if poor audience reading is permitted. An audience-reading period should be one of pleasure and anticipation.

Carefully planned lessons based on specific needs are essential. An oral-reading period can be made more interesting and valuable if appropriate materials are selected and the necessary techniques are developed. Small-group instruction which permits each child to participate more frequently is an efficient way to handle certain types of oral reading, such as reading to answer questions, to phrase properly, to use the voice to express a mood of an author, and for correct pronunciation of sounds. Larger groups may be desirable for certain types of choral-reading and audience-reading situations. Each child should receive the specific help that he needs in order to read orally in an acceptable manner.

READING TO ANSWER QUESTIONS.   The ability to read to substantiate an answer to a question is necessary when a controversy arises. This situation provides a natural opportunity for oral reading. Opportunities for developing this skill are numerous in a classroom. For example, the following exercise might be used, after reading a story about Switzerland.

> Have pupils answer questions such as the following:
> What do the people of Switzerland make from milk?
> What did Irmgard's uncle give her?
> What did she promise him she would do?
> Why did the herdsmen take the cows to the mountains?
> What did Irmgard tell her cow she would do when the cows came back?
> Did Irmgard's cow want to go to pasture with the other cows?
> Did the cow tell her good-by?
> If pupils are unable to agree on a correct answer for each question,

have them reread the story to find a part that gives the correct answer. Then have the answer read aloud.[1]

READING TO PHRASE PROPERLY.   Correct phrasing results from reading with understanding. Reading the material silently first to comprehend it is essential if children are to learn to phrase properly when reading orally. The game of "Who? What?" will give further practice in phrase recognition. The exercise may be used with any story. In the story "The Shoemaker and the Elves" it would work as follows:

Duplicate or write on a chalkboard the following sentences. Have pupils pick out and write in columns on their papers the part of each sentence that answers the question "Who?" and the part of each sentence that answers the question "What?"

1. A poor shoemaker lived in a little house.
2. He cut out leather and made shoes.
3. They did not have much money.
4. We have no leather.
5. The old shoemaker stood by his bench.
6. The old man and woman needed warm clothes.
7. She told him to make a pair of pointed slippers.

USING VOICE TO EXPRESS A MOOD.   A good oral reader is able to communicate to his listeners the feelings, emotions, and moods of an author by emphasizing proper words and using different inflections. An exercise to help the children understand the importance of voice inflection and gain practice in expressing words through inflection is given here.

Encourage pupils to prepare a short sketch built upon different inflections of the same expression, such as "yes," "just try it," "how beautiful." They may wish to bring out misunderstanding that may arise from the inability of a speaker to use proper inflection or from the inability of a listener to interpret the inflection.

For example, a sketch such as the following may be developed.

[1] Gerald Yoakam, Kathleen Hester, and Louise Abney, "Irmgard's Cow," *Children Everywhere,* Laidlaw Supplementary Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955.

NARRATOR: It is a cold, sunny day in early spring. Johnny is moving restlessly about the room where Mother is sewing.

JOHNNY: I don't want to put away my toys. I don't know where to start.

MOTHER (*in matter-of-fact manner*): Just try it.

JOHNNY: Aw, Mother, I don't know how.

MOTHER (*coaxingly*): Just try it.

JOHNNY: I don't think I can do it. I guess I'll go swimming.

MOTHER (*warningly*): Just try it!

NARRATOR: Johnny did try it! When he got home, what do you think happened? You're right—it did!

Give the pupils an opportunity to present their sketch as a radio production. Pupils presenting a sketch should not be visible to the audience, but should depend entirely upon their voices for presentation of an idea.

PRONOUNCING SOUNDS OF LETTERS CORRECTLY. Many interesting jingles and poems which stress pronunciation of specific sounds are available at all reading levels. Children should be given experience in reading these sounds correctly. A choral-speaking selection which uses the sound of *p* is given here.

TWO LITTLE BUNNIES

LEADER: Two little bunnies went out to the park.

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

LEADERS Two little bunnies played long after dark.

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

LEADER: Two little bunnies hopped home very late,

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

LEADER: Mother was waiting for them at the gate,

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

LEADER: "Runaway bunnies are naughty," she said,

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

LEADER: "Nothing will do but to put you to bed."

REFRAIN: Hippety, hippety, hop.

CHORAL READING. This is especially valuable to a shy child who fears his own voice and is insecure in speaking or reading before a group. It is helpful, also, in giving children practice in reading by thought units and in speaking correctly. Group cooperation required for speaking chorally stimulates social development. If children are

interested in a selection they will interpret it better. Enjoyment and understanding are expressed by their voices. For this reason the way a selection is to be interpreted should be worked out by children and teacher together. Here is an example of a choral speaking activity.

LITTLE ECHO

TEACHER: Little Echo is an elf
Who plays at hide and seek.
You never, never find him,
But you can hear him speak:

CHILDREN: Hello! (*echo*) "Hello!"
Hello! (*echo*) "Hello!"

TEACHER: Listen! you can hear his voice.
Hunt him far and near,
You cannot find the little elf
But this is what you hear:

CHILDREN: Hello! (*echo*) "Hello!"
Hello! (*echo*) "Hello!"
I'm here! (*echo*) "I'm here!"
Come near! (*echo*) "Come near!"
I'm here![2]

Encourage pupils to talk about echoes. Have them tell about times they have had fun with echoes, and also have them tell how an echo comes back to them and how it makes them feel. They should bring out the fact that an echo is exactly like the original except that it is not so loud and it sometimes has a hollow sound.

After you read the poem to them, have pupils read the lines marked for them. This is a refrain type of choral reading. Interpretation may be varied by having one group read the original call and a second group read the echo. In this two-part arrangement, have pupils try each arrangement, refrain and two-part, and also have them read the part marked *Teacher*. After they decide which interpretation they prefer, let them use it in another reading.

[2] Gerald Yoakam, Kathleen Hester, and Louise Abney, *Stories We Like*, Laidlaw Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, p. 246.

AUDIENCE READING. There are innumerable opportunities for audience reading in a classroom. Requirements for good audience reading and for effective listening were discussed previously in this chapter. A shadow play is one means of giving practice in audience reading. It is effective especially for pupils who are afraid to stand before a group to read.

Have pupils select a story they have read, plan the action, and choose the actors and a reader for each part. Then stretch a sheet across the front of a stage or across the front of a room and place an electric light back of the sheet. As the readers read the story, the actors should carry out the action in pantomime back of the sheet.

A Summary Statement

Part Four has dealt with the development of fundamental skills that are essential for efficient reading. Since reading is a part of the total growth pattern of a child, careful provisions must be made to enable him to develop to limits of his ability. For this reason various skills and abilities which make up the structure of reading were presented separately. It is not expected that these skills will be taught in isolation or at the expense of interest and enjoyment in the reading process; they should be taught in a meaningful situation, according to needs of the children.

To ask a child to make a report on a historical event, for example, before he has learned how to locate information and make an outline tends to frustrate him and to tear down personality development rather than foster it. A need to make such a report offers an opportunity for the teaching of skills that will enable him to carry out the activity successfully, and with personal satisfaction that results in personal growth.

To help a teacher understand the needs of children and to carry out everyday activities, each skill has been analyzed for its component parts. Classroom activities for the development of each skill

and subskill were suggested. This section has stressed understanding of the fundamental skills that are essential for successful reading at every level and a knowledge of the ways to help children attain these goals in order to develop to limits of their abilities.

PART FIVE

A teacher plans to further reading as a thinking process

VOLTAIRE asked, "Who leads mankind?" His answer was, "Those who know how to read and write." Today, world leaders recognize that "leading nations are reading nations." To reap the greatest harvest from its members, a democracy must develop each individual to the fullest of his capacities.

Effective reading involves three levels of reading: (1) word recognition and vocabulary, (2) understanding and study skills, (3) critical and creative reading.

Part Four discussed the first two levels. Chapters 15 and 16 present a third level of reading proficiency—the ability to read critically and creatively. In this decade, teachers are ready to move beyond mere recognition of words and literal comprehension, beyond interpretation of facts and study skills, into the realm of reading as primarily a thinking process.

It is upon these higher levels of reading that advancements of a social and scientific nature depend. New developments result from seeing relationships and rearranging them. A person who grows up in a creative atmosphere is likely to explore his world and increase his knowledge. If creativeness is given attention in reading, a person will use his skills to expand and grow. He will become a more interesting individual. His work will reflect increasingly mature feelings, insights, and ambitions.

The ability to read critically and creatively opens doors to richer concepts, provides more exacting tools for learning, and enables each individual, gifted as well as not gifted, to attain fuller personal development; it broadens his horizons, shapes his attitudes, and awakens him to the beauties of his literary heritage. As a result of it, a pupil gains a greater realization of his social responsibility; and this in turn results in a richer life for all, himself as well as society.

Children can be taught to read critically and creatively. During the past years teachers and psychologists have demonstrated that reading instruction can be directed to enable boys and girls to make continuous growth in reading as a thinking process. In this section attention is given to developing the discriminating readers and thinkers so necessary to our democracy.

CHAPTER 16 ✦ DEVELOPING ABILITY TO EVALUATE CRITICALLY WHAT IS READ

CRITICAL EVALUATION of what one reads is extremely important in a democracy. It is perilous to react passively and uncritically to what is seen in print. Every citizen should be able to recognize and discount propaganda and to evaluate ideas encountered in reading. It is his chief protection against being influenced undesirably by propaganda and against developing prejudices. He needs to be able to distinguish between writings that are based upon fact and those that are emotional expressions of an author; to discriminate between writings that are interpreted and colored by personal feelings and those that are factual reports of news. To do this he must be able to read beyond facts. He must be able to understand what an author has said, to know an author's point of view and ultimate purpose in writing an article.

The type of reading required for critical evaluation includes a complex form of comprehension in which a reader develops a habit of appraising material against certain criteria. It is evident that the broader and richer the background of a reader, the more able he will be to judge the reasonableness, the worthwhileness, the relevancy, and the accuracy of what is read; the more tolerant he will be of material about which he possesses insufficient background. He will criticize in the light of what he knows about a subject.

Independent critical reading must be learned. Research evidence has shown that children who read on a high level of comprehension as measured by usual reading achievement tests are not necessarily proficient in reading material that requires critical evaluation. Guiding children in critical reading is difficult, but it is essential if our democracy is to survive. After children have identified a problem, and have developed a means of locating the information pertinent to it, the crucial step of selecting and evaluating the information in terms of purposes must be taken. To help them achieve maximum

growth in this respect it is necessary for a teacher to understand what is involved in the ability to read critically.

SKILLS NEEDED TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO READ CRITICALLY

Critical reading includes (1) the ability to determine the relevancy of the material to a given topic; that is, the understanding that, although a statement may be important, it may not be relevant for the purpose; (2) the ability to check the validity of a statement against other statements in the same book and against other statements by different authors; (3) the ability to detect the difference between a statement of fact and a statement of opinion and the understanding that a printed statement is not always a true statement; (4) the ability to check the competence and detect the bias of an author and the ability to use a copyright date as a means of checking the validity of his material; and (5) the ability to use one's own experience in appraising what one has read.

To be able to do these things one must have reading skill of a high order. It is necessary to retain the ideas that one reads until they can be evaluated through further reading and through experience. To achieve competence in these skills, a child must be given instruction starting with his earliest experiences in reading and continuing throughout his formal educational career. In addition, an attitude of sensitivity to the accuracy of an author's statements should be developed that will continue throughout life.

The materials used should contain few vocabulary difficulties, so that children will be free to center their attention on the aspect of evaluation for which they are reading. Items to be taught should arise from needs encountered during purposeful reading. Sufficiently motivated exercises on each phase of a skill should be given at frequent intervals to bring about competence in its use. Ample opportunity for application of a skill should be provided in many reading situations, especially in reading content subjects. Numerous research studies indicate that the ability to read for critical evaluation responds well to skillful teaching.

ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO READ CRITICALLY

RELEVANCY OF MATERIAL TO A GIVEN TOPIC. When a child seeks to attack a given problem by reading, he first locates information about the topic. Then he reads material to select the parts that are important for his purpose. In early primary grades children may read critically to choose a part of a story that could be acted out, or to find parts that tell why Jack was a happy boy. Preparation of reports in intermediate grades and selecting episodes important for storytelling are typical of kinds of exercises that require children to evaluate the relevancy of material to a given topic. An exercise of this type follows:

Have children read a story about Abraham Lincoln or some other famous person. Have them list traits of character that describe what the person is, e.g., courageous, calm, resourceful. Then have them find proof of these traits in the story. Give them opportunity to read aloud and discuss the statements they have chosen to prove each of the qualities.

ABILITY TO CHECK THE VALIDITY OF A STATEMENT. Opportunity to teach critical thinking presents itself whenever two or more authors disagree upon a point. Any subject which deals with human relations, such as social studies, is full of disagreements on controversial issues. A good reader must be able to judge the accuracy and validity of controversial statements. Children can be led to detect propaganda and prejudice if they are taught to read to discover an author's purpose in writing and to suspend judgment until they have allowed a writer to express his point of view. Accounts of the War Between the States, for example, are very different when written by a southern author and when written by a northerner. This variance in accounts was well expressed by a little old southern lady who said, "I would like so much to see a true, unbiased account of the War Between the States written by a good southern author."

In intermediate grades children may come upon the statement "Florida has the best climate in the country for year around living," whereas in another book they may find a statement which claims the best climate for California. At such a time a teacher should help

children to discover who wrote each statement, where he lives, and reasons for the differences. She should help them to understand that facts have been influenced by the personal feelings and experiences of the authors, so that they gave contradicting statements.

To help children learn to check statements by one author against those by another, let them make reports on controversial issues. Have them find the information in several sources on topics such as the following:

The Most Dangerous Occupation
The Most Beautiful Scenery in the World
The Life of Robert E. Lee
(Use books by northern and southern authors as source material for the last two topics.)

ABILITY TO DETECT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STATEMENTS OF FACT AND OF OPINION. If children are to be able to resist propaganda, they must learn to know when language is used to inform them and when it is used to influence their feelings. For this reason it is important that they be made aware of words and expressions that are particularly forceful in arousing emotions. They should be given opportunities to read and to compare reports of the same event in a newspaper that tends to be sensational and in one that reports news accurately. They should understand the differences between a news item and an editorial dealing with the same news; that the purpose of a news item is to give reliable information and the purpose of an editorial is to interpret news fairly and intelligently. The reasons why editors of several papers may present differing views on the same item should be studied.

The ability to detect differences between statements of fact and opinion can be developed from the time children first begin to read. Exercises in which children choose happy words or sad words help them understand the importance of words in creating feelings. As instruction proceeds, emotive words and phrases must be more difficult to identify.

Many newspaper and magazine articles should be appraised for

accuracy and freedom from prejudice. For example, an exercise of this type might be used to stress the influence of words:

Directions: Read the following headlines. Be ready to tell which ones you would be likely to find in a sensational newspaper and which would be in a newspaper reporting accurate news.

> FORTY MEN DIE IN FACTORY FIRE
>
> MEN BURNED TO CRISP IN FACTORY FIRE
>
> BROKER CRUSHED TO PULP BY SPEEDING TRUCK
>
> BROKER KILLED IN ACCIDENT

ABILITY TO CHECK COMPETENCE OF AUTHOR AND TO USE COPYRIGHT DATE. Controversial articles in books or magazines are frequently the result of a difference in time of writing. This is especially true of social studies and certain scientific materials. It is important for children to understand that a statement that was true at a certain date may not be true today. For this reason they need to know the location and purpose of a copyright date and to understand its relationship to the validity of reading material. They should establish a habit of checking a date when seeking information.

Authenticity of material is a factor children should learn to deliberate. Although their background of experiences is limited for judging the competence of an author, they must find out what they can about him if they are to understand the relationship of a writer to the validity of the material. Every opportunity should be utilized for noting an author, his position, and the relationship between his position and his probable knowledge of the subject matter. Exercises like the following are helpful. They are functional when children are using books to seek answers to specific problems.

Give children copies of several different social studies books or readers. Have them answer the questions below. Then discuss with them information they have found.

Who are the authors?

What positions do they hold?

Do their positions help them to know about material in the book they have written?

Find the copyright date. When was the book written?

How many years ago was it written?

Was the information you are seeking as true then as it is now?

ABILITY TO USE EXPERIENCE IN APPRAISING WHAT IS READ. The ability to read critically requires ability to think as one reads. Children must be taught to judge what they read in terms of reasonableness. They need to think as they read, "Is this true?" They must learn also to suspend judgment in accordance with their knowledge of a subject and to be tolerant of material when they possess insufficient background for making a sound judgment.

An example of an exercise that requires children to think as they read and to use their experience in arriving at a conclusion is given here.

Have each pupil select one character or one event in a section of a reader that they have read. Let them use their selection in composing a title for a paragraph, such as "The Cruelest Person," "The Most Courageous Person," "The Most Interesting Event." Then have each one write a paragraph in which he develops the characterization or the scene in conformity with the title. When the paragraphs have been completed, have them read aloud. Give pupils an opportunity to tell whether each paragraph has evaluated the person or event correctly.

CHAPTER 17 ✦ DEVELOPING ABILITY TO READ CREATIVELY

The Meaning of Creative Reading

CREATIVE READING means active reading. It is not a casual, indifferent, effortless response. Emerson made a plea for creative reading when he wrote:

> One must be an inventor to read well. . . . When the mind is braced by labor and invention, the page of whatever book we read becomes luminous with manifold allusions. Every sentence is doubly significant, and the sense of our author is as broad as the world.

Creative reading means added effort in comprehending and evaluating, in seeing relationships, and in sensing the feelings behind facts. A reader becomes a co-author. He visualizes, recalls experiences from his own life that verify or refute statements, sees relevance to current conditions, and decides what he is willing to accept. He responds with thoughts and feelings which he himself contributes. There is an interplay between author and reader that usually results in new understandings.

In creative reading a person uses all the reading skills he has acquired. And to these competences he adds a part of himself. He must have experiences which will give him depth of understanding, ability to interpret beyond the printed words he sees on a page, ability to evaluate with sharpened judgment, and deeper appreciation of the power and use of reading in life.

THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN DEVELOPING CREATIVE READING IN A CLASSROOM

Creative reading is dependent first of all upon a teacher's ability to read at this higher level. When a teacher learns to read creatively, then, and only then, can she lead her pupils.

Secondly, teachers must re-examine their own definition of read-

ing. For many teachers the task of reading is completed if a student can recognize, understand and recall an author's words. Reading a book is a mechanical, undiscriminating task. In classrooms where value is placed upon the number of books covered, creativity tends to decline. Emphasis is given to conformity. Teachers are afraid of original ideas and exclude questions involving responses that may differ from pupil to pupil. New ideas and spontaneity are discouraged. Time cannot be spared for creative thinking. McCullough[1] points out that some children are never given a chance to think about their reading, even in high school.

Third, there must be a planned program of instruction. A teacher must realize that this higher level of reading is not acquired easily or suddenly. Reading proficiency is dependent upon teacher guidance. Reading skills—whether mechanical, study type, or creative—must be taught systematically. Every component subskill must be developed to the highest degree possible at each maturity level. An incidental approach cannot be relied upon to develop thoughtful creative reading.

SELECTING PUPILS FOR CREATIVE READING INSTRUCTION

Which pupils should be included in creative reading instruction?

Every child has creative possibilities, but many are never given an opportunity to think about their reading. Teachers are too busy "covering books" to allow pupils to take time to engage in creative activities and responses.

Every child challenged to use his thinking ability can learn to read creatively to his level of understanding. It is a responsibility of every classroom teacher to discover at what level each boy and girl is comfortable in thinking. The idea that only a few abler pupils in each class can think creatively is a fallacy. According to Woolf,[2] "Creativity belongs to all of us, and should be encouraged in all,

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[1] Constance M. McCullough, "Creative Reading," *Contributions in Reading,* no. 15, Ginn and Company, Boston.

[2] Maurice D. Woolf and Jeanne A. Woolf, *Remedial Reading,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1957, p. 53.

including the potential geniuses." As McCullough reminds us, "a teacher must believe in the creativity of every child."[3] Creativity is already there, within each boy and girl. It can be freed or it can be stifled depending on the classroom climate created by each teacher.

Skills Needed to Develop Ability to Read Creatively

Instruction in creative reading should begin in kindergarten. Guidance in the more complex aspects should be provided through high school and college. There must be a planned program which will stimulate creative reading at each maturity level. Alert teachers will become familiar with the hierarchy of skills and abilities in this important area and plan their instruction accordingly. Creative reading involves the following learnings:

Understanding:
> Power of words: emotive words, sensory impressions, figurative expressions
> Importance of clear, accurate, thorough impressions
> Author's thoughts and feelings
> Cause and effect in relation to people, events, situations

Interpreting:
> By relating to own earlier experiences
> By expanding author's thoughts beyond statements on a printed page
> Author's moods and attitudes
> Feelings by identifying with characters
> Facts about characters, places, happenings
> Facts from which to draw inferences, predict outcomes, and make logical conclusions

Evaluating:
> Differences between the real and the imaginary
> Facts and opinions
> Feelings behind facts
> Motivation of author

[3] Constance M. McCullough, *op. cit.*

Genuineness of characters, ideas, events
Validity of ideas from other reading and from experience
Author's qualifications
Completeness of information
Fusing:
New ideas with previous learnings in order to improve thought, behavior patterns, and attitudes: to develop personality; to use as a springboard for thinking creatively about self and others and the universe, and to gain power to think independently
Appreciating:
Reading as a means of enjoying ideas and happenings of all times in all places, understanding life, finding and developing new interests, enlarging one's boundaries and scope, enjoying leisure
Form and style of writing
Inspirational power and emotional appeal

Classroom Procedures for Developing Ability to Read Creatively

The preceding list indicates the creative reading skills and abilities that a teacher needs to develop in her pupils beyond the skills required in a basic reading program. A few activities which are suggestive of other exercises for classroom use in developing creative reading are now described for each major area.

UNDERSTANDING

Creative reading is built upon basic reading skills. By means of increased study, the fundamental vocabulary and comprehension skills are extended to give boys and girls greater depth of understanding.

Emotive words. Words which stir emotions and highlight the feelings of an author are recognized by a good reader. Every grade offers a teacher many opportunities to help pupils learn to detect words and phrases that create feelings. Children learn to analyze words, phrases, and the relation between placement and emphasis and to understand how impressions are created.

TELEVISION COMMERCIALS. There is nothing better than to begin with television commercials. They offer an opportunity for unlimited study and can be adapted to any maturity level.

Have each child bring to class his favorite television commercial. Record it with a tape recorder or write it on a chalkboard. An exciting discussion will result if you guide pupils' thinking by such questions as:
Is the statement true?
Is it partly true?
Is it misleading because it contains a part truth?
What did the speaker say to make you think the way he wanted you to think?
Was his reasoning good?
What evidence did he offer to support his statement?
After this discussion, have pupils listen to the commercial again and list the exact words and phrases which created the feelings.

CHANGING ADJECTIVES. Let children pick out words, such as *courageous* and *gay*, which describe a character in a story they are reading. Then discuss with them how using different words would change the meaning.

WORD LISTS. Have the class list words which children use to stir emotions. A list of "fighting" words might include such words as *bully, unfair, cheating*. "Happy" words might include *smiling, laughing, dancing, merry*.

Let children talk about how their feelings change when someone uses the words on the lists.

Sensory impressions. The importance of reading to gain sensory images was discussed in Chapter 12. Good basic-reading instruction develops this skill. But for creative reading, guidance in this important area must go beyond the initial instructional level.

A sensory image is what a person hears, feels, tastes, smells, or sees in his own mind. A pupil's ability to create clear images when he reads depends upon his store of such images. A child who has vivid imagery seldom becomes a "word caller." Symbols are rich and meaningful. and he translates words he reads to make a page come alive.

FEEL BOX.   This is one activity to help children form sensory images.

Out of one end of a cardborad box, such as a shoe box, cut a hole large enough for a child's hand to go through. Fasten down in the box four or five objects which give different tactile impressions, for example, a cotton ball, some crumpled cellophane, a rubber band, and a piece of smooth metal. Paste a little curtain over the opening to keep children from seeing into the box, and put the lid on the box.

Ask a child to reach in, feel each object, and describe what he feels. On a chalkboard write the descriptive words that the pupils use to describe their feelings. Encourage them to use these words in creative writing and in talking.

KINGS, QUEENS, AND CASTLES.   A third-grade class, taught by Marie S. Gallo, carried out this very interesting and effective study involving sensory imagery. The study is described by the teacher as follows:

We had been studying and reading stories about kings, queens and castles. We read about the types of clothing these people wore—silks, satins, and velvets. Some children had no idea how these materials felt to touch.

In one week we collected swatches of as many kinds of material as we could. We had velvet, satin, rayon, nylon, net, angora, cashmere, orlon, and jersey. Every child had a chance to identify the materials from sense of touch alone.

Now when pupils describe things you hear them say, "a pony's coat shines like satin," "a puppy's nose feels like cold taffeta," "the wind feels as soft as velvet,"—and they know exactly how these look and feel.

EXPANDING THE MEANINGS OF SOUND AND TASTE WORDS.   Ask pupils to tell what a sound word, such as *swish*, means to them. They may draw pictures to illustrate. Use taste words also. Words used may be adjusted to the maturity levels of the pupils.

Figurative expressions.   To help children develop understanding in this area, read a poem to the class. Then select figurative expressions and have pupils interpret each one, telling what sensory images it creates. For example, Eugene Field's "Wynken, Blynken,

and Nod" appeals to young children. Have them explain each phrase, such as "sea of dew," "nets of silver and gold."

Older pupils may select favorite poems from which to depict images.

Clear, accurate, thorough impressions. Examples of exercises which may be helpful in this area are as follows:

Let pupils write greeting cards and brief notes for real situations.
Select a topic such as food. Have pupils make up riddles.
Ask pupils to describe historical characters or animals they have studied about. They must describe them so accurately that everyone will know what they have selected.

Author's thoughts and feelings. Emotive words with which an author highlights his feelings are recognized by a good reader. Pupils need to become proficient in detecting the words and phrases an author uses to create the feelings, moods, and impressions he wants. They need to discover how a writer uses language for emphasis. Literary stories and newspapers lend themselves well to the development of this skill, as the following examples illustrate:

A junior high school class had read "Singing Family" by Jean Ritchie. They were discussing the power of words. Some asked the question, "How did Jean Ritchie create an impression that the food she had as a mountaineer child was good tasting?" The pupils began to locate phrases which "made their mouths water." They listed "hot, crusty corn-pone," "browning 'taters," "thick pieces of home-cured ham." Then they described some of their favorite foods in similarly vivid terms.

A national political conference was the topic of discussion in another class. Pupils discussed two versions of a news story about it. One account was taken from a newspaper which favored the Democratic party, a second from a paper which favored the Republician party. Although the facts were identical, the two papers gave very different impressions. The pupils analyzed the stories to see how the meaning had been changed by the use of emotive words and by placement of phrases in the sentences.

INTERPRETING

Creative reading is built upon a good foundation in understanding what is read. To read creatively requires the ability to go beyond

the thoughts actually expressed on a printed page. A reader must depend not only on what an author says, but also on his own thoughts and feelings.

Some skills and abilities required for interpreting what is read were discussed in Part Four. Suggested exercises to further this ability at a higher level are given here. To be effective, these exercises should adjusted to the pupils' reading levels.

Identifying with characters. Creative reading means really thinking about what is read. A reader must respond with thoughts and feelings which he himself contributes. It is possible to stimulate this type of reading from the time a child begins to read, as was done in the following case.

Join Mrs. DeWaters' class of primary children. They have just finished reading "Goldilocks and the Three Bears." A child has made the statement, "Goldilocks was a *bad* girl for going into a house without being asked." There is a difference of opinion in the group. Mrs. DeWaters suggests that they "think through the story" before making a decision. She guides their thinking:

"Run with Goldilocks. Run into the forest. Run around among the trees until you are tired; you are thirsty. You discover that you do not know your way home. You cannot find your way out of the forest. How do you feel about it?

"Wander on, trying to find your way home. Discover the little house in the woods. Tap on the door and wait. Do you hope someone will come to the door, ask you to come in and rest, and then tell you the way home?

"How do you feel when no one answers the door? Push the door open and peep into the room. How do you feel about what you see? Do you feel curious about the house, tired enough to walk in and sit down for a while?"

With this directed discussion the children experience the whole story. They are asked to "pretend you are telling your mother all about your adventure." Their accounts show that real creative thinking about the moral issues is taking place. Words are coming alive.

At every reading level there are many opportunities for children to grapple with questions which cannot be answered until they live the part of a character. Good teacher guidance helps children learn

to identify with characters so that the printed page becomes a living world.

Expanding an author's thoughts. What does a sentence mean to a reader? At best, a writer can present only a limited statement and trust that readers will expand it by thoughts they themselves contribute. When an author writes *One summer day a boy was walking down the street*, he relies upon the reader to interpret *summer* and to visualize *a boy* and *the street*. He assumes that the reader knows that a boy has two legs, two arms, and so on. He cannot stop to detail every word. He must condense his thoughts.

If reading is to be meaningful, children must be guided in learning to expand the author's thoughts. A wise teacher will discover what responses her pupils are making. Then she will be in a position to know which children need more meaningful experiences.

The sentence *One summer day a little boy was walking down the street* was written on a chalkboard by Dolores Walbrecq for her fourth-grade class. The pupils were asked to tell what it meant to them. The few responses given here show how differently the pupils expanded the writer's statement.

EDDIE: "One day a little boy was walking down the street and saw a great big puddle. He was going to be a tugboat. When he came home he took a bath. His clothes were a mess."

VALERIE: "One summer day my brother was walking down the street with a bottle of milk and fell and dropped it."

ROBERTA: "A little boy with black hair and brown pants and blue eyes was walking down the street."

KEITH: "One summer day a boy was walking. He fell and broke his leg. He yelled and soon was at the doctor's home."

MIKE: "One summer day a boy was walking down the street and saw a mud puddle and thought it was chocolate pudding and ate some. It had a worm in it."

Teachers of later elementary grades will make startling discoveries about their pupils by using sentences from a social studies or other content-area textbook. Studying the pupils' responses to statements will give clues to concepts which need to be expanded.

EVALUATING

In Chapter 16, "Developing Ability to Evaluate Critically What Is Read," the importance of this skill was discussed and ways of developing proficiency in several of the subskills were suggested. The ideas in Chapter 16 should be expanded to include the evaluation of a character and his actions. Many literary stories afford opportunity for guidance in this skill. A teacher in one junior high school gave her pupils this type of guidance.

The pupils were grappling with the following question: "Does a person have a right to do as he pleases, or must he consider the effects of his actions on others?" The question arose from their attempts to decide whether the boy in Fred Gilpin's story, "High, Lonesome Places," was justified in doing what he pleased. The question was real and alive to these pupils. In justifying their answers, the pupils were doing really critical and creative reading and thinking.

FUSING

The value of reading lies in the ability to fuse new ideas with previous learnings in order to improve thought, behavior patterns, and attitudes and to develop personality. Reading can be used as a springboard for thinking creatively about self, others, and the universe and to gain power to think independently. But children do not learn to use reading for these purposes without guidance.

Every opportunity for a class to make use of reading in solving problems, personal or academic, must be seized. Teachers must be aware of sources of materials which they can use to help pupils solve problems which confront them. Problems faced by story characters which are related to children's own problems should be considered, and time should be taken to help children use their reading experiences in thinking out solutions. The following ideas are suggestive of the ways in which fusing may be of value:

1. The children can use their reading as an aid in solving school or social problems, such as making the lunchroom a more desirable place or making and carrying out plans for beautifying their city.
2. They can use reading to solve personal problems. In one class

the teacher used stories and poems about the dark to help some children overcome their fear of it.

3. Children may read fables to learn fundamental principles of behavior.

APPRECIATING

The ability to appreciate what is read determines *whether* a pupil will read or not and *what* he will read. No amount of skill will make a reader when there is an absence of appreciation. Many teachers become so involved in teaching word-recognition skills that they have no time for developing appreciation of reading as a worthwhile activity. In the final analysis, the attitude of the reader and his sense of values determine whether he will read at the comic-book level or whether he will use reading to create a better world for himself and others.

Innumerable opportunities for children to learn to appreciate reading are present in every classroom. This exercise was developed in a sixth-grade classroom.

The children were asked to "listen for pictures" while a good reader read an account of the life of Jean Francois Millet, the artist. Millet's biography evoked many interesting mental pictures of episodes in the artist's life. Pupils paid close attention to the story and were intent on finding every detail in each episode of his life because they planned to express their impressions of these images later with water colors or crayons.

In this classroom, "listening for pictures" was synonymous with "listening for pleasure." The children were enthusiastic and the pictures they painted showed depth of understanding. Each picture was shown to the class and explained by the young artist who created it.

Appreciating types of literature. Independence in selecting good literary stories can be developed by keeping a classroom chart which shows the different types of literature: poems, fables, folk tales, fairy tales, myths, legends, Old Testament stories, fiction and non-fiction.

During story hour, when reading to pupils, the teacher should list

the title of the story under the correct heading. At intervals she should discuss the chart with the class and let each child tell which stories he liked best. The literary type to which each story belongs should be indicated. The teacher should guide pupils in finding more stories of the types they enjoyed.

CREATIVE WRITING

Creative reading leads to creative writing. Increased ability to express themselves in clear vigorous descriptive language resulting from growth in creative reading stimulates children to write creatively.

One warm spring day some pupils in Saline, Michigan, were inspired to express their thoughts about spring. The following pieces were written by three of the children:

> Springtime, to me, means the soft sound of wind, and colored kites caught in trees, with birds coming back from the south, while the sun chases shadows.

> Springtime brings children out of doors to fly kites, ride bicycles, roller skate, jump ropes, play soft ball, and yell, "First bat!"

> Coats, caps, sweaters are thrown aside, for it's warm outside, and the fresh cool breezes are just right for children to play—and to pause to look at the purple crocus which takes the breath away with admiration every Springtime!

A Summary Statement

The rewards of critical and creative reading instruction are immeasurable. Teachers who become proficient in developing these higher reading skills find their pupils more excited and more enthusiastic about reading than they dared to imagine. It is a thrilling experience to watch children develop a depth of understanding and the ability to respond intelligently to a printed page.

When children, "with stars in their eyes" have caught the joys of adventuring and creating with an author and have realized the stimulation of thinking, they have become "readers." And a teacher knows that it has been well worth all the time and effort it has taken.

A teacher plans an effective reading program

THE tremendous increase in the sum total of human knowledge which has come about in recent years has made the ability to communicate through the written word more and more important. The heavier demands which modern life makes on an individual require teachers to keep posted on the findings of research which will enable them to stimulate children to learn and to direct activities that will help them learn most effectively.

Schools change with the times. Changes in educational practice are not whims of leaders but stem from results of research studies on how the human mind develops. Responsibility for keeping abreast of these changes rests with a teacher. She must be aware of advances in methods and materials. She must have insight and resourcefulness to guide the children into learning activities which are appropriate for them and at the same time of value socially.

She must be able to help each child develop to the limits of his ability, even when the classroom is crowded.

To perform this new role skillfully, a teacher needs to study new methods and techniques and must learn how to apply these most effectively.

Part Six presents ways and means by which teachers may apply the findings of research in meeting the needs of all pupils; in using basic reading materials more effectively; in developing co-basal programs; and in individualizing instruction.

CHAPTER 18 + MEETING THE NEEDS
OF ALL PUPILS

SUCCESSFUL TEACHERS realize that every child needs to feel secure in his school life and to develop gradually and successfully into a competent, self-confident person. Reading is one important means by which this growth is achieved. The growth pattern of each child varies. It is a teacher's job to know and to pace this pattern by supplying instructional material in accordance with needs and interests of each child.

If teachers accept this philosophy, they must do more than give lip service to the idea of providing for individual needs; they must adapt instructional programs to fit each individual child in a classroom. This is not as difficult a task as it appears at first. It does not mean that each child has to be taught separately. In fact, there are times in every classroom when an entire class works effectively as a unit, sharing common reading experiences. But it does mean that a teacher must provide a very flexible plan of grouping since the needs of a child may vary from day to day. To understand how this is done effectively, it is advisable to examine first the different theories of grouping that have been used.

Historical Development of Grouping

Since the beginning of teaching, two types of instruction have been used—individual and group. Dr. William S. Gray, in an article entitled "The Evolution of Patterns of Instructional Organization,"[1] very ably traced the development of instructional organization. He

[1] William S. Gray, "Evolution of Patterns of Instructional Organization," in Helen M. Robinson (ed. and comp.), *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, December, 1959, pp. 14–19.

gave striking evidence that for centuries both group and individual instruction have played significant roles.

The belief that grouping in reading instruction was necessary to provide for individual differences began to be accepted by educators in the 1920's. Teachers felt they could provide more adequate instruction if they divided the pupils into homogeneous groups. At first the basis for such grouping was the result of standardized intelligence tests. Since these tests required a child to read to answer questions, the good readers became members of a "bright" group. Accordingly, other children fell into "average" and "slow" groups. A social stigma was attached to membership in a slow group.

The only provision for differentiation of instruction was that of speed. All children in a given grade were supposed to "cover" the same material, but at different rates. For example, a fast group might be reading on page 276 of a reader, an average group on page 183, and a slow group on page 42. With such a gap between the work of groups, it was impossible for a pupil to be transferred from one to another. He was labeled as a fast, average, or slow learner and advanced from grade to grade with the group with which he had become identified.

Parental dissatisfaction arose under this plan because many parents felt that Johnny was not actually a slow learner. They knew he was bright in many other ways. To offset some of this criticism teachers attempted to camouflage groupings by giving them names or allowing children to select a name for their group. Instead of being known as bright, fast, average, and slow groups, they became known by names such as "Birds," "Butterflies," and "Bees." It was soon discovered, though, that pupils themselves were not misled by the names. Bees, for example, realized they were a hard-working, slow-progressing group. The fast-flying Birds soon looked down upon slower-moving Butterflies and Bees. The program was not meeting needs of pupils adequately. It was creating other problems in reading and in social living.

The late twenties and early thirties brought forth a mass of evi-

dence concerning reading difficulties. Research studies pointed out that children had different needs. It became apparent that factors other than intelligence, such as reading achievement, special interests, and physical conditions, must be considered in grouping pupils. Studies indicated that teaching methods needed to be varied. The same procedures that were successful with a fast group were not successful with a slow group. Instructional procedures began to be varied to meet needs of different groups. Teachers' manuals began to stress the fact that children should be allowed to progress at their own rates. Not all children were required to cover the same material during a school year. For example, a slow group in a third grade might be reading from a second reader while the average and fast groups read from a third reader. Differentiation by acceleration was still the keynote for grouping, however.

The development era of the forties found teachers attempting to apply results of numerous research studies concerning reading difficulties to improve regular classroom instruction. Teachers became increasingly aware of children's differences in attitudes, interests, readiness, and abilities. They accepted the fact that it was normal and usual to find a wide range of reading abilities within a given classroom. Groups became more flexible. Children might be shifted from one group to another if the one in which they were participating no longer met their needs. Many different types of small-group organization sprang up. A few typical plans were those of grouping according to reading achievement, grouping through a unifying center of interest, grouping through specific group interests, and grouping through use of many small groups guided by pupil helpers. The problem that was still uppermost in a teacher's mind, however, was how to bring pupils up to a hypothetical "grade" level.

During the past few years, as a result of numerous studies on child growth and development, there has been a shift in emphasis from "how to bring a child up to grade standards" to "in what ways reading can help to develop a child." It is with this problem that a teacher is concerned today.

Bases for Grouping

Reading, no longer considered an isolated skill brought about by formal practice, is now considered a part of the developmental growth pattern of a child. There is recognition of the fact that the growth pattern of every child does not progress at the same rate. A child's mental, social, emotional, and educational growth is the result of interplay between his experiences and his interests, abilities, and needs. A teacher must pace the pattern of growth with instructional materials that will develop each child according to his capabilities and needs. To do this, she must determine needs. She must consider children's capacities, physical status, social and emotional development, and educational status. Background experience, tastes, interest, language development, ability to discriminate visually and to make auditory associations and differentiations, status of muscular coordination, and ability to follow directions are all factors that contribute to successful growth in reading.

When growth in reading is considered in this manner, it becomes apparent that no single basis for grouping can be successful. Nor can a rigid type of organization meet the needs of the children. It is of utmost importance that groups be kept flexible to permit a child freedom to move from one to another. The needs of a child should determine with which group or groups he should work, the length of time he should remain in one group, when he should work independently, and when he will profit best by working with an entire class in a common reading experience.

There are many ways of providing for individual differences within a classroom. A comprehensive study of various patterns of grouping for reading instruction is found in the proceedings of the Annual Conference in Reading.[2] A thorough study of this volume

[2] Helen M. Robinson (ed. and comp.), *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago Press, December, 1959.

will acquaint teachers with many types of administrative and in-structional organization. Several plans have been discussed in the previous section in consideration of bases for grouping.

The Multiple-Level Instructional Program

One of the most satisfactory plans for grouping is the multiple-level instructional plan. Children refer to the procedure as "read-ing by invitation" because under this program a child may be in-vited to join any or several groups that meet his needs.

At the primary level, under the multiple-level program, the usual number of reading classes are set up. Before the grouping is begun, care is taken to meet with the parents to explain the philosophy of reading. They are helped to understand that the reading-growth patterns of children may vary just as physical-growth patterns differ and that children will be invited to participate in groups that satisfy their needs and promote growth in reading.

In a pupil-teacher planning period an explanation of grouping is made to the children. They are told that they may participate in work of any group or of several groups if they desire. There is no teacher pressure to require a child to become a member of a certain group. Centers of interest are set up in a classroom to provide for the needs of children at times when they are not working with a group that is reading or when they are not engaged in independent work for development of skill in language arts. A description of the program as it was set up by a teacher in a first grade may clarify the procedure. Quotations are taken from her diary.

It was late in the afternoon of September 6 when I entered the last child's name in my class book, and I stopped to reflect for an instant as to Why—oh why—my mother had ever consented to let me become a teacher.

As I glanced over the names, bits of information came back to me that had been given on the first day of school by well-meaning parents: "Billy is allergic to most everything; here is the medicine; it must be

given every day at ten-thirty; and Oh, yes! he will need a shot once a day. I will bring the hypodermic needle tomorrow. Please do not give it to him in front of the other children; he is very sensitive." Another: "Be sure and let Jimmy go to the toilet whenever he wants to go. We have never insisted on habits at home. He still wets the bed at night and is very nervous." And another: "Here is my son. I hope you can do something with him. He is spoiled, we know, but he is our baby." Finally came Ted, big, smiling, all alone. He had been a failure according to all reports and this was to be his second year in first grade. There was a question about his mental ability.

There were others with problems but only these seemed to stand out very clearly.

What was I going to do?

The teacher observed the children carefully for several days and noted on check sheets bits of information concerning mental, social, emotional, physical, and educational factors. Standardized reading readiness tests were given. The following information was recorded:

There were eighteen children with scores which meant they were ready for reading and were rated high, one with an average score, and eleven in the low grouping bracket. Eight of these eleven would not be six years old until November. The scores ranged from a perfect score to a score of twenty-eight points below the lowest possible score marked on the test.

Several interest centers were set up in the room. Two primary tables were put together and covered with oilcloth. Pegboards, colored pegs, colored beads and strings, puzzles, clay, drawing paper, and a painting easel were provided, Chairs were set around the table.

A library corner was made with two portable screens, two tables, four chairs, two davenports, two bookcases, and a floor lamp. All of this furniture was made from orange crates and painted royal blue and cherry red. Attractive books were placed on the table and in the bookcases. A doll, a doll buggy, and play dishes were put in a playhouse in this corner, also. A painting easel afforded even the spoiled baby a chance to express himself.

Three reading classes were started—one which provided work

preparatory to beginning reading; a second in which more advanced preparatory work was done; and a third in which formal instruction in reading was given. During a pupil-teacher planning session children were told they might come to any or all reading groups, stay as long as they wanted to, and leave when they were ready, provided they found some useful occupation elsewhere in the room.

Once a week, never on the same day, a sweep-check vocabulary test was given and each child had an opportunity to tell a story he had read or to read a story on the chalkboard. This latter contained all the new words introduced during the week. The checkup was not compulsory, but after fourteen weeks of school the little ones who did not want to look at a book in September were asking their turns. Results were gratifying. By January every child in the room was reading successfully at his level. The child who was below norms on the standardized reading readiness test was attending every reading class. Every afternoon at three-thirty he would ask, "Do we have to go home now?" The child whose mental ability was questioned was a well-adjusted boy who was reading successfully at primer level. Needless to say parents were strongly in favor of continuing the program.

The plan has been very successful in rural schools, also. A teacher who has nine grades in his one-room rural school describes his situation:

Our reading classes have been changed from what they used to be. A fourth-grader may be found with a third-grade reading class, but this is his own choice. I do not force them to attend younger reading classes. I invite them. Sometimes they refuse—sometimes they accept. Those who accept do not come with an inferiority feeling and we enjoy our reading classes to the utmost.

Many times a child who has been absent chooses to attend several reading groups until he has found himself again.

Another rural teacher who met similar success in grouping by invitation expressed herself as follows:

The value of grouping children according to their reading needs has been brought more forcibly to my attention. I have found that my

children enjoy reading more, read with less nervous tension, and are more interested in learning to read when they are reading at their own levels. They do not feel they are being forced to do something that is too hard for them to do.

A carefully controlled study of the "reading by invitation" plan was made in the public schools in Akron, Ohio. Gloria Rittenhouse, in reporting the study, commented:

The consensus of opinion of the experimenting teachers was that the most significant contribution of "reading by invitation" was in children's ability to recognize both their weak and strong areas. "Reading by invitation" also offers a child further opportunity to assert himself in obtaining optimum growth at his level. It provides a wealth of experience in reading for all children.[3]

Some teachers question the ability of children to select groups that meet their needs. Experimentation with the plan convinces teachers that children frequently sense their own weaknesses more accurately than teachers do. The basic psychological principle of success functions. A child, like an adult, will participate in, profit by, and enjoy work in which he is successful. Just as teachers welcome an opportunity to join a group working on a problem that is troubling them, so children are happy to gain help they need. An opportunity for every child to have the instruction necessary for his growth pattern is reflected in the attitude of children toward the work and in the lack of behavior and reading problems. As one child put it, "We have fun in our school. Each child reads because he is able to understand what he is reading."

The multiple-level instructional program functions very well in the intermediate grades also. The average reading range in an intermediate classroom is five to seven years. This means that a small group reads well below the normally expected grade level, while a majority of the class read at, or several grades above, the level of the classroom. Moreover, children have varying needs in developing skills of reading. Some read well orally but are poor silent readers.

[3] Gloria R. Rittenhouse, "An Experiment in Reading by Invitation in Grades One Through Four," *The Reading Teacher*, April, 1960, pp. 258–261.

Some can read for main ideas but are unable to visualize what they have read. There are as many needs as there are children in a classroom. And needs change from day to day. Thus it is imperative that a flexible plan of grouping be used.

Under the multiple-level instructional program, a story is motivated with an entire class participating—the mature, the average, and immature readers together. Motivation, largely dependent upon interest, plays an important role in pupils' success in reading. Since motivating a story is relatively easy one time but becomes increasingly difficult in ensuing presentations, the story background is set for all children. Motivation may require one, two, or several periods. During this time the background of a story is discussed, pictures, films, and other visual aids are used, and the children contribute any experiences they have had. The purpose for a motivation block of time and the defense for having all pupils participate is the building up of richer backgrounds of experience. The richer the experiences of children, the more meaningful reading becomes to them, for we interpret a printed page in light of our own experiences. An immature reader profits greatly from building-up experiences and from an opportunity to express himself orally in making his contributions to a discussion. He can often contribute valuable and interesting information to a group.

The second step in multiple grouping by invitation is presentation of difficult words and phrases in a story. The entire group again is invited to participate. If the work is too difficult for an immature child, however, he drops out and works at a preplanned reading task at his own level. On the other hand, if the presentation of words and phrases is unnecessary for a mature child, he works on a related reading activity that has been decided upon during a preplanning period.

In the third step of this program, purposes for silent reading are set up. Immature children leave the group at this time to read material of an easier level. If any of them feel strongly that they want to read the story that has been motivated, they may be permitted to try. They will not care to continue with this more difficult

reading if the group work at their level is made interesting because the psychological principle of success is a motivating factor in learning functions. They enjoy reading at their own level because they are successful with it.

The fourth step in grouping by invitation is the development of some particular reading skill. Children are told what skill is to be developed. Those who need help on the skill are invited to attend the instruction. Those who are proficient in the skill work on some related activity, and those who are too immature to profit by the instruction work at reading at their own level. It will not take long, if the correct atmosphere has been set, for children to become aware of their own needs. They will come to these classes voluntarily.

The fifth step of the technique is reassembling all the children to discuss the story. Parts of a selection or a whole selection may be read orally, or it may be dramatized, pantomimed, or used in numerous other ways. The story is evaluated, and work on the specific skill that was developed is evaluated. Children discover their own needs and will attend future sessions on the development of that particular skill. Those who have mastered it will work on enrichment activities. The related activities in which the more mature pupils engaged are presented and evaluated also. Again an immature group has an opportunity to participate in discussion and evaluation. There is a richness of experiences and opportunities for development of oral language abilities that will help them speed along their own reading. It must be remembered that in this program a teacher will work with actual reading material of the immature group at a level suitable for them.

The multiple-level instructional program by invitation provides all pupils with a wealth of experiences, ability to develop oral language facility, hard work on specific reading skills, and time for related enrichment activities.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE MULTIPLE-LEVEL INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

To illustrate the procedure, a plan for teaching a story at the

intermediate-grade level is given here. A factual story about Australian birds and animals, entitled "You'll Find Them in Australia"[1] is used.

Steps 1 and 2

Show the children pictures of the kangaroo and the emu. If pupils recognize the pictures, have them tell what they know about each one. Then have the pupils locate Australia and Tasmania on a globe or map. Let them tell what they know about Australia. Direct their attention to these facts:

Australia and Tasmania lie south of the equator; for that reason they have winter while we have summer and summer while we have winter.

Their summers are not very hot, nor are their winters very cold.

Have pupils tell why Australia is called an "island continent" and why it is said to be on the "other side of the world." Point out its relation to the position of other continents.

Direct attention to the fact that Australia has many plants and animals which are not common to any other place; that there are about 700 species of birds in Australia, 431 of which are not found outside the Australian continent, and 122 more not found outside the Australian region.

Children should be aware that the reason Australia has so many plants and animals which are not common anywhere else is that Australia has been so widely separated from the other continents for many thousands of years.

At this point a small group who read below the reading-grade level of the story are dismissed to find or draw other pictures of interesting animals or plants of Australia or to work on their own reading-group assignment. The participation of the immature readers up to this point gives them a feeling of belonging, enriches their experience, and affords them an opportunity to express themselves. Many times these children are able to contribute valuable information to a group discussion. The larger group continues with the story.

[1] G. A. Yoakam, Kathleen Hester, and Louise Abney, *On the Trail of Adventure*, Laidlaw Basic Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, pp. 290–298.

STEP 3

Have pupils read the story silently to find out how these strange and interesting creatures live in Australia. When they have finished, have them recall briefly the answers to specific questions such as the following:

Why is the kangaroo the national animal of Australia?
How does a kangaroo protect himself?
How does a mother kangaroo protect her baby?
How high can a kangaroo jump?
What is a koala baby called?
In what one characteristic are koalas and kangaroos alike?
Why cannot koalas serve as pets in United States?
Why do Australians dislike the dingo?
Why is the emu an easy target for hunters?
Why is the cassowary a popular bird?
How does a male lyre bird entertain a female bird?
What kind of bird builds a playhouse?
What is different about earthworms in Australia?
What animal's eggs look like tennis balls?

STEP 4

At the close of the discussion divide the children into groups according to their needs. The teacher works with one group on the development of a specific skill, while pupils in a second group work independently. Suppose, for example, that following the reading and discussion of the story, some pupils evidence a need to recognize words more effectively while others need to become more proficient in finding specific information and in reading material of greater difficulty. The teacher tells the children with what skills they will work today and invites all those who need help to join the group. The personnel of groups changes from lesson to lesson because of differing needs, so groups are kept flexible. The following exercises are used with this story to develop more effective word recognition, skill in finding and using specific information, and interest among more mature readers in reading more difficult scientific materials.

For development of more power in word recognition:

Have pupils review rules for syllabication:
1. There are usually as many syllables as there are vowels (except for final *e* and for double vowels).
2. When a vowel is followed by two consonants, the division comes between the two consonants.
3. If a vowel is followed by one consonant, the syllable usually ends with a vowel.

Write on a chalkboard *eucalyptus, koala, emu, native.* Have the pupils pronounce each word to show syllable division, as *eu ca lyp tus.* Have them apply rules of syllable division to these words. Then write on a chalkboard *defend, protect, cassowary, curious, stupid.* Have pupils copy these words and beside each one write the number of syllables, the correct syllable division, and the rule that applies in each instance.

For the development of skill in finding specific information:

Have pupils make a list of all birds and animals that are talked about in this story. Beside the name of each have them write interesting facts about it. Later have them read their lists to the group to see if the lists are complete and facts are correct.

For creating interest in reading more difficult scientific materials:

Have more mature pupils make a chart of the tails of animals. Other pupils may assist in this work when they have finished their assignments successfully.

Give pupils an opportunity to look in science books or other reference books to find how some animals, reptiles, and birds use their tails. They should recall that in "You'll Find Them in Australia" they were told that kangaroos use their tails as props and that a lyre bird uses his tail for attracting attention.

When pupils have located and read the information, have them make a large chart upon which each pupil draws the tail of an animal he selected. Under each drawing the name of the animal and the purpose for which it uses its tail should be written, as follows:
Beaver: large flat tail used to steady itself while it gnaws trees
Horse: long brushy tail used to remove insects
Alligator: long hard tail used to knock out its prey

STEP 5

When the work on the development of skills has been completed, all the children in the class should come together again while the

pupils discuss what they have learned, make their contributions, show charts, and evaluate their work. Pupils in the immature reading group may participate in this discussion and evaluation advantageously. Frequently they are able to contribute. They gain in experience in listening and in speaking, which helps them to improve their own reading. They feel a sense of security and belonging which is all-important in learning to read successfully.

APPRAISAL OF THE MULTIPLE-LEVEL INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN

The time involved in presenting and developing stories through a multiple-level instructional plan is greater than that used by many teachers in an ordinary reading lesson. The purpose of the program is to develop power. For many years teachers have been interested in how many books their children have read rather than in the reading power they have developed. Children today read approximately fifteen times as much material as they read twenty years ago, yet the level of reading has not increased appreciably.

Practice is essential, but practice without thorough knowledge of techniques does not produce efficiency. A good football coach does not hand his players a ball and tell them to practice with it daily. He teaches every technique and spends a great deal of time in developing each type of learning that is desired. He lectures, demonstrates, uses moving pictures and graphs to make certain the players know exactly how to go about a play. Then he has them practice it under guidance. He is not interested in how many times the boys go up and down a field in one afternoon; he is vitally interested in how much skill they have gained during practice.

A teacher of reading faces a similar problem. Better readers will be produced when teachers stop worrying about "covering" a number of books and concern themselves with motivating, presenting, and thoroughly developing the stories in a reading program. Although it is desirable that children read a quantity of material, this should be accomplished with related and supplementary materials rather than with basic materials. Basic materials provide a sequential de-

velopmental program, and the next chapter deals with using them effectively.

A Summary Statement

Over the years many patterns of instructional organization have evolved in an attempt to improve instruction. In the early 1920's when standardized tests began to be used widely, teachers became increasingly aware of individual differences. Many different types of programs were developed to meet varying needs of children within a single classroom. Plans for grouping were first based upon results of intelligence tests. These groups were very rigid. Factors other than intelligence began to be recognized as determinants in success in reading. Emotional, social, physical, and certain instructional factors began to be considered in providing for pupil needs. Today the grouping of the pupils within the classroom is flexible, in accord with the varied and changing needs of the individual children.

CHAPTER 19 ✦ USING BASIC READING MATERIALS EFFECTIVELY

LEARNING TO READ is a continuous process. It is a part of the total language development of a child. Language, reading, spelling, and writing contribute one to another. These abilities are interrelated, and their development occurs in systematic sequences. As soon as a child has the need to use the world of communication, it is important to provide him with systematic learning experiences. As soon as he is mature enough to learn to read, he should have systematic instruction with well-planned lessons. It is the responsibility of a reading program to prepare him to meet the reading requirements that confront him. The total reading program is an integral part of the development of a child. A basic reading program is a vital part of a total reading program.

Phases of Development in Learning to Read

Children go through five phases in the development of their reading ability: preparation for reading, initial reading, period of rapid growth, use of reading as a tool, and refinement of reading skills. The first stage, preparation for reading, has been discussed in detail in Part Two, "Factors Affecting Children's Growth in Reading." Procedures for preparing children for reading have been given in Part Three.

The initial reading stage is a period during which the child first makes relationship between symbols and ideas and things they represent. He feels a real need to use this world of communication. In many situations he understands the bearing these symbols have upon his life. Reading is interwoven in the flow of events each day. A room environment is full of opportunities to see and understand the meaning of visual symbols. This interest is usually displayed at the beginning of the preadolescent cycle of growth.

As a child matures and enters the period of rapid preadolescent growth, he enters a period of rapid growth in reading. He has gained a considerable reading vocabulary, can read at a modest pace, and understands what he reads. He begins to read various supplementary materials but is not yet really independent in his reading ability. Carefully controlled materials such as preprimers and early primary books at least one level below his instructional level are best for independent reading. With such materials he can make steady, rhythmic progressions across lines and grasp the thought of passages fully and accurately. This stage of reading growth is evident at second- and third-reader levels.

Nearing the end of the preadolescent growth period and the beginning of the adolescent cycle, a child uses reading widely as a tool for learning and to enrich his experiences. He develops important reading habits, attitudes, and skills. He becomes able to use reading for a wide variety of purposes. Skill in reading to get the main thought, to get specific details, to generalize, to evaluate, to summarize, and for many other essentials is developed. He incorporates reading into his active social experiences and into his workaday world. By the end of this period pupils have developed independence in attacking unfamiliar words and in coping with meaning. They have gained personal independence in reading, and a lasting enjoyment and appreciation of literature. It is during the intermediate-grade level that most children reach this level of maturity.

The latter part of sixth grade and the advanced adolescent period of junior and senior high school mark a stage of refined reading. At this time children must have continued guidance in reading if they are to develop to the limits of their abilities. Skills that were initiated at earlier levels must be maintained and refined. Combinations of techniques are used during the actual process of reading. Children are able to modify techniques, to shift speed, to select and use the correct type of reading for a specific purpose at hand, and to adjust to different types of reading materials. They work out the meaning and pronunciation of new words on the basis of increasingly superficial clues. It is through the continuation of a systematic

program in teaching reading that children gain efficiency and a permanent and compelling interest in reading.

Values of a Basic Reading Program

Continuity of growth in reading skills. There are many reasons why it is advisable to have a basic reading program throughout elementary grades. Psychological data indicate that children grow in reading power in systematic sequences. Studies show that the skills necessary for the development of these sequences are best learned with guided, systematic practice. A basic reading program provides for continuity of growth and minimizes the possibility of instructional gaps or overemphasis. It guides reading activities from one maturity level to the next. The grade designation of a reader indicates its place in a developmental sequence. It does not mean that all children are expected to achieve a certain amount at a given time. Every child in fourth grade, for example, is not expected to read a fourth reader. This grade designation means that the reading activities and experiences in this book are in advance of those in a third reader and that they provide continuity of growth in skills, habits, and attitudes.

A basic reading instruction reflects current theories in education. Methods of teaching suggested are based on the best scientific knowledge available. Materials in basic reading series today are adapted to a theory of continuous child growth. They recognize maturing reading skills, habits, and attitudes. They provide a gradual introduction of each skill and careful repetition and expansion of each aspect of reading necessary for successful achievement. They develop a wide variety of skills. Children are introduced to different types of reading that require an interrelation of skills and a combination of them into organized patterns. Basic readers are so constructed that children accelerate gradually and experience continuous progress from step to step.

Provision for common experiences and individual needs. Another

advantage of using a basic reading series is the provision for common experiences as well as for individual differences. A teacher who uses her readers wisely finds many suggestions by the authors and publishers for flexible use of basic materials to take care of varying needs of each child. But children need common experiences as well. There is a definite advantage in sharing an experience. Wise use of basic series enables a teacher to meet both of these needs.

Worthwhile content. Basic readers in reading programs provide for worthwhile content of ideas. Many series contain material of superior literary quality. Stories are selected for their inherent values. Different types of reading materials are included, both work type and recreational. Opportunities to learn how to read scientific, historical, biographical, classical, poetic, and sentimental selections are provided. Some series include stories and experiences for speech development. A basic series gives a foundation for reading in all fields.

Foundation of a reading program. Reading activities should not be confined to basic materials, however. Basic readers constitute the core of a reading program. There must be a balance between them and other materials. Application of skills learned in basic reading should be made in reading content subjects and in all other reading experiences in which children engage.

A basic reading series is best used when it is made the foundation for all other reading experiences, when groups are kept flexible to meet needs of every child, and when individual progress determines the rate at which material is used.

Misuses of a Basic Reading Program

The misuses of a basic reading program are the fault of teacher education, not of textbooks. Some of the common errors to be avoided are given here.

Using a single book for all children. One of the most common errors in the use of basic readers is to assign only one book to one

grade level. Not all children in a class can profit by the same book. In any normal grade there is an approximate range of five years in reading achievement. Thus it would be impossible, for example, for all pupils in a fourth grade to read profitably from a fourth reader. There must be several different levels of reading material in one classroom to provide for varying needs.

Failure to apply skills learned. Basic reading skills should be applied to work in other fields and related to other activites in which the children engage. If children are learning to read for visual imagery, for example, give them opportunity to depict a scene about which they have read in history or a scene from something about which they may have read in science, such as the life of the cricket.

Using a basic text only. Limiting reading instruction to the basic text only is another misuse of a basic reading program. A program should be extended to include reading about interesting news events and community incidents and all others reading situations needed by children, such as reading of signs, film captions, maps, graphs, and charts.

Materials of a Basic Reading Program

Many teachers could teach children to read far more effectively if they availed themselves of the aids that are a part of basic reading series. Too often a textbook is the only part of a program that is used.

A basic series consists of three major parts: children's reader, teachers' manual or guide, and workbook. In addition there is a complement of material available for early primary grades. Text-films and filmstrips, which will be discussed in detail later, are integral parts of a basic series. Word cards and a wall-chart holder for them are a part of equipment at beginning reading level. Phrase cards are used with some series. The use of phrase cards is questionable, however. Some studies indicate that children develop poor habits of phrase perception with the use of phrase cards. They soon learn what a particular phrase card says, and practice with it rein-

forces the response. For example, they learn to recognize a phrase such as *under the bed* by a single clue, such as *under*. Thereafter they look merely for the clue they have selected instead of letting their eyes sweep the entire phrase rapidly. In this case each time they see *under*, they respond with *"under the bed."* It has been found to be more functional to use combinations of word cards to make the phrases or to write phrases on a chalkboard and erase them quickly, one at a time. Thus a phrase can be changed rapidly, for example, from *under the bed*, to *on the bed*, to *under the table*, to prevent memorization. Children must learn to perceive an entire phrase at a single sweep.

THE CHILDREN'S READER

It has been stated previously that a reading textbook contains worthwhile material appealing to a variety of interests. Opportunities are provided for learning to read many different kinds of material for different purposes. Stories and poems for the development of effective speech are contained in some readers. It is important to use many different types of stories to help children learn how to adapt their way of reading to the type of material. Too many adults use a single pattern for all reading. A girl who reads fictional stories and recipes in the same manner is likely to have dire results with a cookbook or else she will read fiction so slowly she will not enjoy it. One research chemist stated that he had never read a book for fun in his entire life because he read fiction with the same meticulous care that he gave to his research reading. Foundations for different patterns of reading may be developed through the basic instructional program.

THE TEACHERS' MANUAL

A teachers' manual accompanying a basic reader suggests efficient and effective ways of using the readers. It presents a fundamental plan of instruction based on best scientific information available. Plans vary from lesson to lesson to ensure development in all phases of reading and proficiency in all reading skills. Directed reading

activities are provided to care for individual differences. Special helps are suggested for immature children and enrichment experiences for mature readers. Numerous specific suggestions are invaluable. A plan should never be regarded as an absolute, prescribed form of presentation, but as a foundation to which a teacher adds her own ideas and initiative, and adaptations for her individual groups.

Objectives and characteristics of a reading program are usually stated in a teachers' manual. In addition to specific teaching recommendations, phonetic charts, record cards, skills development programs, library reading lists, and methods for evaluating reading progress are some of the aids found in manuals.

No teacher can afford to ignore a teachers' manual. The best cooks are constantly on the alert for new ideas in preparing foods, business men seek suggestions to increase production efficiency, doctors seek new and better ways to help their patients, yet many teachers spurn the suggestions of the manual because they are afraid their administrators or public may think they are inadequate for the job. An alert supervisor recognizes a good teacher by the fact that she uses her manual in planning a lesson and keeps it accessible during the lesson.

WORKBOOKS

Workbooks are a fundamental part of a basic reading program. Severe criticism is often directed at workbooks. This is a result of misuse of a workbook rather than a fault of the material. When a workbook is used indiscriminately or as "busy work" the criticism is justified. Wise use strengthens the program immeasurably. In using workbooks teachers should consider the following factors.

GROWTH IN BASIC SKILLS AND ABILITIES. The chief purpose of workbooks is to promote growth in basic skills and abilities. They are organized on a plan paralleling the basic reader. The same vocabulary is used so that the children reinforce and fix the vocabulary in a meaningful way through added reading experiences. In

a well-constructed workbook, experiences are provided for sequential and systematic growth in the entire hierarchy of skills for that reading level. Some teachers claim they would rather construct their own worksheets. The danger of such a practice is the tendency to pattern each sheet on one or a few basic skills only. If a teacher constructs her worksheets to provide continuous growth in each of the subskills discussed in the section on the development of reading skills, it is entirely possible to set up a skills development program in this way. Such a task is extremely time-consuming, however, and presupposes a knowledge of the type of exercise that will develop best the specific skills. Few teachers find it economical in time and effort to undertake it when they can procure these materials very inexpensively. Their time and effort can be spent to much greater advantage on other phases of an educational program or in recreation to help a teacher maintain better mental health.

GROWTH IN ABILITY TO WORK INDEPENDENTLY. Growth in ability to work independently is another outcome of wise use of workbooks. Since a workbook is an integral part of the reading program, class time should be used to develop the instructions to the pupils. A good workbook has directions written to children at as early a level as possible. Before the reading group goes to work, the children should read carefully and understand exactly what they are to do. This practice permits them to work for increasing periods of time without having to ask further directions, and with a minimum of errors. It fosters skill in learning to read and interpret written directions.

DIAGNOSTIC VALUE. A workbook is helpful both for individual guidance and for determination of group weaknesses. Each workbook page is built upon a specific reading skill. Noting the type of exercise with which a child has difficulty will often enable a teacher to prevent serious problems. If an entire group demonstrates weaknesses in a specific type of reading experience, it is well for a teacher to reexamine the instructional program. It may be necessary to provide additional similar reading experiences before continuing. In this way workbooks can be used to further a differentiated program.

TIMELINESS.   The most vital point for success in the use of a read-ing workbook lies in using it contemporaneously with a basic reader. To allow children to work ahead or lag a few pages behind defeats the purpose of a workbook. Each lesson is planned to promote un-derstanding or provide further experience with words introduced in a reading lesson, to provide review for difficult words, and to develop the skill best adapted to that lesson. If used correctly a work-book will provide material for the extension of basic learnings through additional practice and enrichment.

CHECKING.   The checking of a workbook is another important con-sideration in its successful use. Workbooks are planned for learning experiences. One of the best learning experiences comes from seeing our own errors and correcting them. For this reason it is far more effective to allow each child to check his own workbook page during group discussion than it is for a teacher to correct workbooks. Little children from the first-reader level on through the elementary school can be taught to do this work efficiently. Some teachers question the advisability of this procedure because of the danger of cheating. If a proper classroom atmosphere is set and an awareness of the pur-pose of the workbook as a learning experience is kept in mind, there can be no cheating.

A workbook should not be used as a grading device. Children should be encouraged to correct any errors they make as soon as they see them. If they are able to do it during a discussion period, it is well; if not, they should note each error and correct it at a later time set aside for that purpose. Too many teachers cause children to lose rich learning opportunities gained through the experience of checking and correcting their own errors. Moreover, they burden themselves with hours of futile work that teach a child to look for a grade rather than to realize the value of a lesson.

A workbook program must be used intelligently if real values are to be derived from it. When it is used wisely, learning situations are meaningful. It provides for growth in a variety of types of reading materials requiring a variety of responses. Never should it become "busy work."

EVALUATIVE AIDS

Evaluation is an integral part of a reading program. Throughout the instructional period it should be used as a means of determining the extent to which the pupils are successful in learning to read. Frequent evaluations will bring to a teacher's attention any difficulties the children may be having. Immediate recognition and action by a teacher help children overcome these difficulties before they interfere seriously with progress. Each child can then continue to develop to the full extent of his ability.

The best basic reading series provide or suggest some methods of evaluation. Several different plans are proposed by different authors and publishers. Illustrative types of evaluative aids found in reading series are presented here.

TEACHER OBSERVATION. Each story is developed with a particular objective or set of objectives. The teachers' manual suggests ways and means to present a story to help children grow in one or more specific reading skills. At repeated intervals throughout the recommended teaching procedures, provisions are made for measuring pupils' abilities to use these skills. Following each comprehensive review a number of factors to be observed by a teacher to determine a child's growth are suggested. Recommended exercises that will help children overcome any obstacle they have encountered are presented.

CLASSROOM TESTS. Several basic reading series provide achievement and/or diagnostic tests. These tests are intended for use with the particular series which they accompany and may be used by a teacher in several ways: to determine a child's ability to participate in the work of the next level of the basic reading program being used; to reveal pupil strengths and weaknesses in various skills which were taught; and to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.

READING RECORD CARDS. A reading record card lists the characteristics and abilities to be developed for a specific reading level. It indicates reading skills that should receive attention. If the card is used correctly, a complete profile of each child's development will

be depicted. The needs of each pupil will be made obvious.

PUPIL EVALUATION RECORD. To see, analyze, and correct our own errors is one of the most effective ways of learning. Some basic series recommend that each pupil, especially in intermediate grades, keep a record of errors that he makes.

Another procedure to promote growth in skills and in self-evaluation is to include two types of content in the children's reader: (1) instructional material written for pupils which presents certain reading skills, directions for using the skills, guide questions, vocabulary aids, and comprehension checks that enable a pupil to evaluate his own work; (2) content material from various subject-matter areas to which pupils apply skills learned in the instructional sections. *From Codes to Captains* by O'Donnell and Cooper[1] is a book of this type.

OTHER MATERIALS OF A READING PROGRAM

Although basic reading materials are the core of a reading program, they do not constitute the total reading program. Skills learned in the basic reading program are used as a foundation for all other reading experiences. Application and extension of these skills should be made as frequently as possible through use of other reading materials. Some other teaching materials are suggested here.

EXPERIENCE CHARTS. Experience charts make children feel the worthwhileness of being able to read. They include real happenings and real ideas expressed in children's own language. They link pupils' activities with direct practice in reading techniques. A more complete discussion of the place of charts in the reading program and their importance is given in Part Three.

BOOKLETS. Children love to be authors. At all ages they can be encouraged to do creative writing. Collections of their stories and poems inspire them to greater efforts in all language arts. To be able to read one's own works is a pleasure worthy of great effort. With

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[1] Mabel O'Donnell and J. Louis Cooper, *From Codes to Captains,* The Alice and Jerry Basic Reading Program, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York, 1960.

proficiency in expression, writing, and spelling comes a greater desire to read.

In addition to creative writing, pupils may further their reading experiences through making class newspapers, animal alphabet books, comic strips, creative plays, picture and rhyming dictionaries, safety booklets, picture essays, science and social studies booklets, and many other recordings of classroom experiences. These materials provide the inspiration as well as the opportunity for using the reading skills learned in a basic program. Too many teachers overlook this important avenue of learning. It must be remembered, however, that these materials should be carefully prepared to make them readable.

CONTENT-SUBJECT READERS. A basic reader presents many different types of stories. The introductory passages often serve to spark interest in history, science, geography, classical literature, and stories of fun and sentiment. Further reading in these content fields gives additional experience and provides opportunities to develop further specific reading skills and abilities necessary for these specialized areas.

Each school subject requires purposeful and analytical reading. Compactness of ideas, use of technical vocabulary, presence of new concepts, and purpose for which material is read require use of appropriate skills and abilities. Foundations for successful reading in these areas should be laid in a basic reading program. Content-subject readers should extend the skills and abilities learned in the basic program and enrich the experiences of children in these areas.

JUVENILE READING MATERIALS. A wealth of interesting reading materials that will enable children to gain facility in skills learned during a basic reading program is available to every teacher at little or no cost. Too often teachers decry the lack of reading materials while surrounded by the best resources.

Individual story booklets developing a hierarchy of skills at all reading levels and dealing with many subjects can be assembled by any teacher who puts forth the effort. Such a library can be made as follows:

Collect old readers and other books that are no longer used. (Many parents are glad to donate such books.) Cut apart the binding with a razor. Select interesting stories or articles from the books and let the children design and make a cover for each story out of heavy paper or cardboard.

Make a worksheet based on each story to develop one specific skill, such as vocabulary, comprehension, or evaluation. Staple or otherwise fasten this page with the story to the cover.

File the booklets according to reading level. Cards may be made for a cross-filing system in which they may be filed by the skill to be developed and also by subject. When a child needs practice in a specific skill, desires information on a certain topic, or should have more practice in reading stories of a given reading level, he may choose a booklet from the library card file. When he has finished reading, he should do the skills development exercise. Answers to exercises may be filed separately to enable the child to check his own work.

Children enjoy these booklets because they can be read and the exercises can be completed at a single sitting. Many children who are reluctant to pick up a book will read these booklets eagerly. A variety of materials to satisfy the interests of every child can be collected.

Children's magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and books afford opportunities for extending a basic reading program. A classroom library corner, as well as school, city, and traveling libraries, should be utilized to awaken interests and to develop broad reading abilities. An invaluable book written to help teachers "fit the right book to the right child at the right moment" is *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books* by Nancy Larrick.[2]

[2] Nancy Larrick, *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books*, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., Columbus, Ohio, 1960.

Basic Elements of Reading Instruction

There is no single best way to teach all pupils. Variations in maturity levels and diversity of types of reading make it impossible to suggest one method of using basic readers that would apply to all situations. All good methods, however, conform to the following

basic elements: (1) creating feeling and background for a story; (2) presenting a story unit as a whole; (3) breaking the story up into smaller units for directed study; (4) rereading the story; (5) providing for systematic growth in skills; (6) providing for individual differences; and (7) evaluation. Not all of these elements are present in each daily lesson, nor will they always be developed in the same order; but all of the steps should be contained in each complete story unit.

CREATING FEELING AND BACKGROUND FOR READING A STORY. This provides opportunities for bridging the gap between the children's experiences and the situations in a story. It is during this time that the pupils may discuss their previous experiences as they relate to the topic, study the pictures to develop concepts and supply further information, see slides and films as background, listen to stories read by the teacher, listen to the experiences others may have had that are related to the topic, and participate in many other ways that will enable them to enrich their backgrounds. Unless care is taken to relate the children's own experiences to those about which they will read, there will be little or no comprehension. Without this background, reading will become a meaningless process of vocalizing symbols.

PRESENTING A STORY AS A WHOLE. The second step is to present the story as a whole. Questions are asked to arouse children's curiosity. Care is taken to use new words and phrases in a discussion to help children assimilate the vocabulary. Sentences used in a discussion containing the new words or phrases are written on a chalkboard that children may see as well as hear them, especially at primary level. At intermediate level children are given opportunity to try their skill at unlocking meaning and pronunciation of many of the new words. Only words and phrases that are beyond the ability of pupils to work out are presented at this time. Pupils read pictures and anticipate the story. They locate any settings of geographic nature. A purpose for reading the story is established. If this step is carefully planned and carried out, children will begin reading a story with understanding and enthusiasm.

GUIDING READING OF A STORY.   Children are now ready for the third step, the guided reading of the story. At this time the story is broken up into small units for instructional purposes. The length of a unit is dependent upon the maturity level of children. In beginning reading, at preprimer level, a single sentence is taken as a unit. For example, if the story is about Tippy, a dog, chasing Nancy's kitten, the text may read

> Come here, Tippy.
> Come to Nancy.

Children are asked how one of them would feel if a dog were chasing his kitten and what he would say. They are asked how they call their dogs when they want them to leave kittens alone. Then they are asked to read the first line to themselves (or with their eyes) to find out what Nancy said to Tippy. When they have had an opportunity to read it silently, one child is asked to read it to the group just as Nancy would say it. The second sentence is developed in similar manner. Silent reading always precedes oral reading at every level to ensure recognition of words, good phrasing, and better interpretation of the meaning. It is never fair to ask anyone to read orally without having had an opportunity to read material silently first, even at adult level. A reader should have an opportunity to work out new words and to understand a story before he is asked to interpret it to an audience.

The size of a unit used in directed study increases until, toward the latter part of the intermediate level, an entire story may be used. For example, after background has been established and feeling created for a story about a child living in a foreign country, the children may be guided in their silent reading by questions such as "In what ways could you tell that this story did not take place in your own country?" and "What kinds of beauty are told about in this story?"

Discussion of a story follows guided silent reading to ensure comprehension. Vocabulary difficulties are cleared up. At this time the parts of a story that answer questions may be read aloud. Oppor-

tunity is given to pupils to learn how to adjust speed for different purposes of reading and for different types of materials. This is guided study in the reading of a story.

REREADING A STORY. This is a fourth step in instructional procedure. During guided silent and oral reading, a story has been broken up into smaller units for study purposes. Unless it is reread as a whole there is danger that children may fail to understand that a story is a meaningful unit. They may be involved in the study of small units to the point that they fail to enjoy and appreciate a story in its true sense.

A definite purpose should always be established for rereading a story. It should never be a monotonous and boresome repetition. An alert teacher will find many activities that make it necessary for the children to reread a story. Some examples are as follows: to select the most amusing incidents, the descriptive parts, the humorous sections, the most exciting parts, specific bits of information, illustrative sections; to read to an audience; to make a puppet show or movie; to dramatize the story; to make booklets; to make a frieze; to compose a new ending; to verify opinions; to draw inferences from the facts in a story; to answer riddles.

PROVIDING FOR SYSTEMATIC GROWTH IN SKILLS. The fifth step in the development of a story unit is provision for systematic growth in skills. The importance of this step has been stressed in Part Four. It has been pointed out that a child will not develop reading power to the limits of his ability without a systematic, well-planned program to develop skills any more than an individual will become an all-American football player without special training and study.

Skills to be developed, their sequence, and suggestive procedures to be used were explained in detail in Part Three.

After the initial presentation, the reading skill should be taught again for pupils who were unable to understand it and should be extended for pupils who grasped it immediately. In this way it is possible for all pupils to have success and to grow in each new phase of learning to read.

Provision in the daily time allotment for reading instruction should

be made to enable pupils to correct their own exercises in skill development with the supervision of the teacher. A discussion of this technique may be found in the section on the use of workbooks.

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. This is the sixth basic step in good reading instruction. Since within any group there will be differences, the success of a reading program depends to a great extent on providing for them. Each pupil's needs and abilities must be considered if he is to be developed to the limits of his abilities. How to care for individual needs was discussed in detail in Chapter 18, "Meeting the Needs of All Pupils."

A pupil-teacher planning period in the morning preceding reading instruction is valuable in caring for individual needs. Classroom activities that are in progress are discussed. Each child understands what contributions he may make if he has time during the day. In addition, special activities for immature and for very mature pupils may be planned. Teachers' manuals are rich in suggested activities to fit the needs of pupils. Some manuals supplement basic procedures for the development of a lesson with special reading activities designed to simplify each phase of the reading program for immature pupils. Numerous opportunities are also offered for mature pupils to engage in creative activities that will extend and refine their reading abilities. In this way a mature pupil is given the attention he merits. He is encouraged to continue working to the full extent of his ability.

EVALUATION. The final step in the development of a reading lesson is evaluation. The ultimate success of reading instruction is judged by its contribution to the development of the whole child. Evaluation should be utilized throughout each phase of instruction. A good evaluation program will bring each child's strengths and weaknesses to the immediate attention of both the teacher and the child. Immediate constructive action by a teacher helps a pupil to overcome his difficulties and to continue to grow in reading ability.

Certain criteria may be considered in evaluating a lesson. The amount of success pupils had in realizing objectives should be discussed informally in a group, and the contributions of each child

should be considered. A teacher may wish to consider the following criteria:

Has the story or article enriched the child's personal life?

Has it fostered desirable human relationships?

Has the child gained assurance in using appropriate reading skills at his level?

Has it added to his enjoyment and appreciation of reading?

More formal appraisals may be made from time to time. Instruments to be used for the purpose will vary with the type of appraisal desired. A more complete discussion of the evaluation procedures and instruments will be found in Part Eight, "A Teacher Evaluates a Reading Program."

A Summary Statement

A basic reading program is an integral part of a complete well-rounded reading program. A thorough understanding of the nature and the use of basic reading materials enables teachers to use them wisely. In this section phases of development in learning to read have been discussed in relation to guided learning procedures advocated in the use of basic readers. Values, misuses, and materials of basic reading programs have been presented. Fundamental principles for conducting reading instruction and the place of basic reading in a total reading program have been considered in an effort to help teachers develop more effective classroom instruction.

CHAPTER 20 ✦ USING A CO-BASAL
READING PROGRAM EFFECTIVELY

Meaning and Function of a Co-Basal Reading Program

THE PREVIOUS CHAPTER emphasized that reading is a complex activity and that children need to be taught reading skills step by step, through lessons that gradually increase in difficulty.

Basic reading skills provide a foundation for the interpretive and creative skills that are essential for reading at a higher level. As was pointed out in Part Five, the ability to read at higher levels is essential for discriminating readers who are so necessary to our democracy. Because reading is such a complex process, basic reading programs necessarily concern themselves mostly with the first two levels of reading, (1) word recognition and vocabulary and (2) understanding and study skills.

To meet the demands of today's world for critical and creative reading, co-basal readers are being used widely. These books complement basic readers to make a complete reading program. Stress is placed upon the development of higher reading abilities. Because stories in these books are written with vocabulary common to that used in basic reading programs, pupils are freed to spend their time in learning to use more complex skills.

Through stimulating content, co-basal readers take a child beyond the stages of recognition and pronunciation of words into a realm of words which appeal to the ear, tongue and other senses; words which have shaded meanings; words which stir emotions. They take him beyond the stage of literal comprehension and interpretation into a world where he comes to grips with real life problems as he

identifies with story characters, where he interprets and evaluates deeper meanings and enjoys literary beauty. This is a world which stimulates imagination and furthers sympathetic understanding of people and their responsibilities to each other.

To read critically and creatively is an art, and, as is true of any art, the skills, abilities and appreciations which foster it are most effectively taught through a planned systematic program.

Values of a Co-Basal
Reading Program

There was a child went forth every day
And the first object he look'd upon,
   that object he became,
And that object became part of him
   for the day or a certain part of the day,
Or for many years or stretching cycles of years.

<div align="right">Walt Whitman</div>

Co-basal readers have values beyond those of supplementary readers and books used for individualized reading programs. They provide meaningful practice in basic reading vacabulary in interesting story situations; they extend basic reading skills, develop pupils' abilities to read critically and creatively, and provide literary enjoyment. They deal with areas of reading beyond the recognition and pronunciation of written words and require a reader to involve himself personally with the thoughts and events in a story, to make judgments, to evaluate ideas, and to respond to situations with his own interpretations. They develop a child's imagination—one of the greatest powers of the mind and so necessary to progress in science, creativity in art and music, and advancement in bettering human relations.

Classroom Procedure

To discern more readily the difference between basic reading instruction and that given with the use of a co-basal reader, let us examine teaching plans for a story at primary level. The selection used is Aesop's fable "The Fox and the Kitten."[1]

The story may be developed with a small group, or, because of ease of vocabulary and high interest, an entire class may participate. Suggested steps in procedure are given here.

BACKGROUND AND INTEREST. Talk with children about fables they have read. Make certain they know what a fable is. Recall the lessons the fables taught, such as in "The Dog and His Shadow" where the big dog learned that greediness may cause one to lose everything. Explain that for several hundred years boys and girls of Greece learned their lessons through these fables.

LISTENING AND TALKING. Write the title, "The Fox and the Kitten," on a chalkboard and let pupils read it. Then let them find the story in the book by using the tables of contents. Give them time to enjoy the illustrations. Have pupils recall other stories they have read about a fox. Encourage them to generalize the character traits of foxes.

While pupils are reading and interpreting the pictures, be sure that they understand what a *well* is and how it works. Let them study the illustration to clarify the concept.

Encourage pupils to anticipate from the illustrations what is going to happen. Suggest that they read the story to try to find out what lesson the little kitten taught the fox.

READING. Most children will be able to read the story independently. Let any pupils who want help be invited to join the teacher in a small group.

After children have read the story, let them talk about the lesson

[1] Harold G. Shane and Kathleen B. Hester, "Tales to Remember," *Gateways to Reading Treasures*, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1960.

they found. List the kitten's tricks on a chalkboard as the children find and read orally the ones they enjoyed most.

USING READING TO STIMULATE THINKING. Ask what the kitten meant when he called to the fox, "Think before you do something."

Ask whether boys and girls ever get into trouble because they do not think before they do something. Encourage children to relate personal experiences. Bring out in the discussion of each experience what would have happened if the child had thought through first what he did.

CHALLENGING EVERY PUPIL. Creative activities should be carried out in accordance with pupil needs and interests. For example, to relate this story to the science interests of boys and girls and to develop the concept of *windlass*, an experiment with a wheel and axle might be carried out, as follows:

To construct a model windlass, children need a large empty spool, a knitting needle, a string, two forked sticks, clay, paper, and paste.

Make a well out of the clay. Mount the two forked sticks in the clay. Run the knitting needle through the spool and let it rest across the forked sticks. Wind the string around the spool two or three turns. Fasten a basket made out of paper at each end of the string.

Make a tiny clay kitten and a large clay fox. Place them in the baskets as in the story.

After experimenting, help pupils understand the principle involved.

EVALUATION. Discuss the model well with children. Able students may discover other machines of the wheel-and-axle type.

Encourage pupils to discuss fables they have read. Let each one select a fable he thinks teaches an important lesson and tell why. Note the behavior and attitudes of the children.

A Summary Statement

Co-basal and enrichment readers play an important role in a reading program. They can be used effectively with all pupils to reinforce and extend basic reading skills, to develop creative forms of

intellectual activity, to stimulate critical and creative thinking, and to foster creative writing.

The program may be used with gifted readers to extend basic reading skills, to challenge thinking, and to develop higher reading skills, attitudes and appreciations.

For less able readers such a program provides repetition of basic vocabulary in stimulating, meaningful situations, gives added practice in basic reading skills without an added vocabulary load, and allows children to participate in whole-group reading experiences.

CHAPTER 21 ✦ USING INDIVIDUALIZED
READING EFFECTIVELY

Meaning of Individualized Reading

INDIVIDUALIZED READING is a term which has become very popular among teachers and administrators during recent years. To define the term is difficult because it means different things to different people, and, as Staiger[1] states, it has become "emotionally loaded" for some.

The concept is not new. Gray[2] pointed out that individualized teaching of reading was done until mass education forced grouping and that along the way many have experimented with individualization of instruction. Evidence shows clearly that this plan is a revival and adaptation of earlier procedures of reading instruction.

Mae Lazar[3] of the New York City schools, described individualized reading as a dynamic approach or way of thinking about teaching reading rather than a method or technique of teaching.

Leland Jacobs[4] asserted that individualized reading is not a single method of teaching reading, nor is it a guarantee that all the ills of

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[1] Ralph C. Staiger, "Some Aspects of Individualized Reading," *Education*, May, 1960, p. 25 ff.

[2] William S. Gray, in Helen M. Robinson (ed. and comp.), *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago Press, December, 1959, chap. 11.

[3] Jeanette Veatch, *Individualizing Your Reading Program*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1959, p. 194.

[4] Leland B. Jacobs, "Individualized Reading Is Not a Thing," *Individualized Reading Practices, Practical Suggestions for Teaching*, no. 14, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1958.

reading instruction will be alleviated. He is strong in his emphasis that individualized reading does not support a "laissez-faire" attitude toward reading instruction.

A review of literature in the field indicates clearly that basically, in the words of Helen Robinson, "individualized reading appears to be a way of organizing a classroom so that every child is reading what appeals to him at all times."[5]

Classroom Procedures

Contrary to the beliefs of some, proponents of individualized reading indicate clearly that the reading program is of an instructional nature and is not a "free reading" period. The plan emphasizes a necessity for the teaching of skills and the development of attitudes that are required for effective reading.

MATERIALS. To begin a program of individualized reading, a large number of books are needed. According to the estimates of some teachers, there should be available at least three books for every child, and it is desirable to have many more.

Tradebooks are used mainly although a teacher may include basal books also. All or parts of supplementary or co-basal books may be selected. The fundamental point is that whatever is available must range from easy to difficult, cover a wide range of topics, and include many different types of reading materials.

INSTRUCTION. A regular daily period is set aside for reading. Each child chooses a book in which he is interested. While children are reading, a teacher moves from child to child, giving instruction to those who need help, and listening to a few read orally.

Part of each period is set aside for conference time with individual children. During this time a teacher tries to discover how a pupil feels about reading, what his interests are, and what skills need to be taught. She notes on each pupil's record what books a child has

[5] Helen M. Robinson, "Individualized Reading," *Elementary School Journal,* May, 1960, pp. 410 ff.

read, the difficulties revealed, the progress made, and plans for the next instructional step.

Depending upon the number of children in a classroom, a teacher may have two or three conferences a week with each child.

Group activities are used in several ways. Small groups may be formed to learn a particular skill if several children evidence the same reading difficulties. The whole group meets at times to share what they have read. The sharing period usually includes reports, dramatizations, exhibits, and choral speaking.

EVALUATION. Each pupil's growth needs to be constantly evaluated. It is the responsibility of a teacher to see that sequences of learnings are included in each child's personal skills-development pattern as he reads many books. Without essential skills a pupil may encounter serious and excessive difficulties in later years as the material becomes more difficult and higher-level reading and study skills are required. Individual pupil records must be detailed and kept up to date at all times.

Care must be taken to see that each child's interests expand. The quality of pupils' reading as well as quantity must be considered. A teacher cannot base the success of her program on the number of books read. Remember the words of Macaulay, "A page digested is better than a volume hurriedly read."

Values of an Individualized Reading Program

INTEREST. A program of individualized reading carried out by a conscientious and able teacher has certain values. High pupil motivation results from a plan which emphasizes personal reading. Wide reading is encouraged based on pupils' interests. Certainly having many books in a classroom is desirable.

LESSENS UNFAVORABLE COMPARISON. In an individualized program a child may move at his own pace, rapidly or slowly, depending

upon his own ability. The dangers of unfavorable comparison with other children are lessened. Teachers may be relieved of feelings of pressure to "cover" certain materials—a situation which occurs at times when basal readers are not used wisely.

CONSTANT APPRAISAL OF PUPIL GROWTH. Continuous evaluation is an asset in any program. Pupil-teacher conferences which cause teachers to become alert to pupil needs encourage teachers to observe and diagnose reading weaknesses and to provide guidance to help children overcome their difficulties.

Difficulties Encountered in Individualized Reading Programs

LACK OF GUIDANCE IN BROADENING INTERESTS. Pupil interest and wide reading are fundamental factors in a plan of individualized reading. But a teacher must remember that guidance is needed to broaden interests. Otherwise a child may have a very restricted reading diet and never know the joys of an unexplored world of reading material. Reading quantities of books in a single area of interest or at the same reading level will not develop reading maturity.

LACK OF KNOWLEDGE OF SKILLS AND COMPLEXITY OF EACH SKILL AT EACH LEVEL. To conduct a successful individualized reading program, teachers must know the skills of reading and the increasing complexity of each skill at successive levels. They must think of each skill as a thread of learning, decide where each child is to begin, provide experiences for his steady growth, and keep a record of his progress. They must know how to develop competence in all fundamental reading skills and abilities. Fluency in reading does not necessarily mean ability to react critically or creatively to what is read. Even mature readers will not develop higher-level reading skills without guidance. In this type of program, using all kinds of materials, a teacher must be prepared to develop competence in

every reading skill and ability and to foster desirable attitudes. To carry on such a program requires superior teachers dedicated to their work.

LACK OF TIME.   Another practical problem is that of time. Individual pupil conferences are highly desirable and a must in an individualized reading program. To schedule a five-minute conference with each of thirty children in a classroom consumes 150 minutes of instructional time, or the equivalent of a half-hour reading period daily for a week. This allows but one five-minute conference a week with each child. And in that five minutes a teacher must assess progress in all aspects of reading, determine attitudes, and make plans to help each child. One of the complaints most frequently heard from teachers of individualized instruction is the frustration they feel in trying to schedule as many daily conferences as children need. Few teachers feel that five or ten minutes a week is sufficient instructional time to give a child.

FINDING COMMON INTERESTS FOR GROUP ACTIVITIES.   Development of group activities when each child is reading a different book makes a very difficult teaching situation. Stimulating discussions of common interest are hard to achieve, yet often necessary. Higher-level reading skills are influenced by backgrounds and attitudes. Unless children come to grips with differing viewpoints on a problem, they will not learn to read critically and creatively.

PRACTICING ERRORS.   A danger that children will practice their errors is ever present when children are reading individually, especially at primary levels. A teacher must rely on the pupils to be aware of words they do not know and to ask her for assistance. Many children are unaware of the errors they make. In one class, for example, Tom, looking up at his teacher, said, "Why do people write such foolish stories? They don't make sense." Other children are content to pass over difficult words, as Marcia, who informed a visitor, "Hard words never bother me. I just don't look at them." Thus, children may learn incorrect pronunciation and attach wrong meanings unless their errors chance to show up in a sampling read by a child during conference time.

A Summary Statement

The values of individualized reading as a total reading program have not been determined yet by research. There is a need for many controlled studies in this area. At present, reports are largely enthusiastic discussions for or against a plan of individualization of reading. Studies which have been made show no conclusive proof. Many educators who have experimented with the plan believe that most successful results may be obtained by combining a basal or co-basal approach with certain aspects of individualized reading programs. Certainly having a larger number of books available, more attention to children's interests, and personal attention through individual conferences with pupils will improve a reading program. But if reading is to be taught as a thinking process, basal and co-basal readers with structural content to ensure continuous growth in all skills and abilities can be used advantageously along with individualized reading material to overcome the difficulties encountered when an individualized program is used as a sole means of teaching reading.

A teacher improves instruction

DEMANDS for improvement of the quality of reading instruction in our schools, an increased need for understanding how children learn to read, and a need for an interpretation of the reading program to the community offer new challenges to teachers. No longer can a teacher sit by quietly and "keep school." He must use to advantage all the materials at hand and keep abreast professionally with an ever increasing fund of knowledge. In addition he must educate parents so that they have a better understanding of the school program.

To perform these functions successfully a teacher needs to make wise use of all the available learning facilities, to participate in in-service education programs, and to build better parental relations.

Part Seven presents ways and means of making more effective use of sensory aids in a classroom, of utilizing to better advantage the time faculty members spend in studying their problems, and of helping parents understand changes in instructional procedures and the reasons for them.

CHAPTER 22 + LEARNING TO USE SENSORY AIDS

SENSORY AIDS have become an integral part of a curriculum. They belong rightfully in a classroom. These aids are not a substitute for reading experiences but a vital part of a balanced program. They are only one group of methods designed to improve teaching. There must exist a particular purpose for the use of any sensory aid. The aid will lose its effectiveness if it is not used properly.

Sensory aids tend to reduce verbalism in reading. Verbalism, the use of words that are not understood, is one of the most common classroom ailments in reading. When children enter school they have a meaningful vocabulary for talking because they have learned the words they use through direct concrete experiences. As a child begins to read, there is a steadily rising danger of verbalism, for he begins to be able to pronounce words he does not understand. If we can attach to these symbols actual sensory-motor and associational experiences, the danger is lessened. Sensory aids not only allow more immediate understanding, but, through their direct appeal to the interest of children, they encourage more accurate and lasting remembrances of the material presented. Through the stimulation of sensory organs the children build concepts, understandings, and relationships. Not only is correctness of impression made possible through visual aids, but also intensity of impression is increased. Learning is vitalized through use of sensory aids. Look at the examples on page 320. Which is more meaningful to the child?

There are many types of sensory aids in learning. Most teachers utilize these avenues of learning at some time or other. Direct experiences, models, dramatizations, field trips, motion pictures, still pictures, and the chalkboard are a few aids commonly used. Textfilms are one of the newer developments in the field of visual aids.

1. A horse is a large, solid-hoofed, herbivorous mammal domesticated by man in prehistoric times, used as a beast of burden, a draft animal, or for riding.

2.
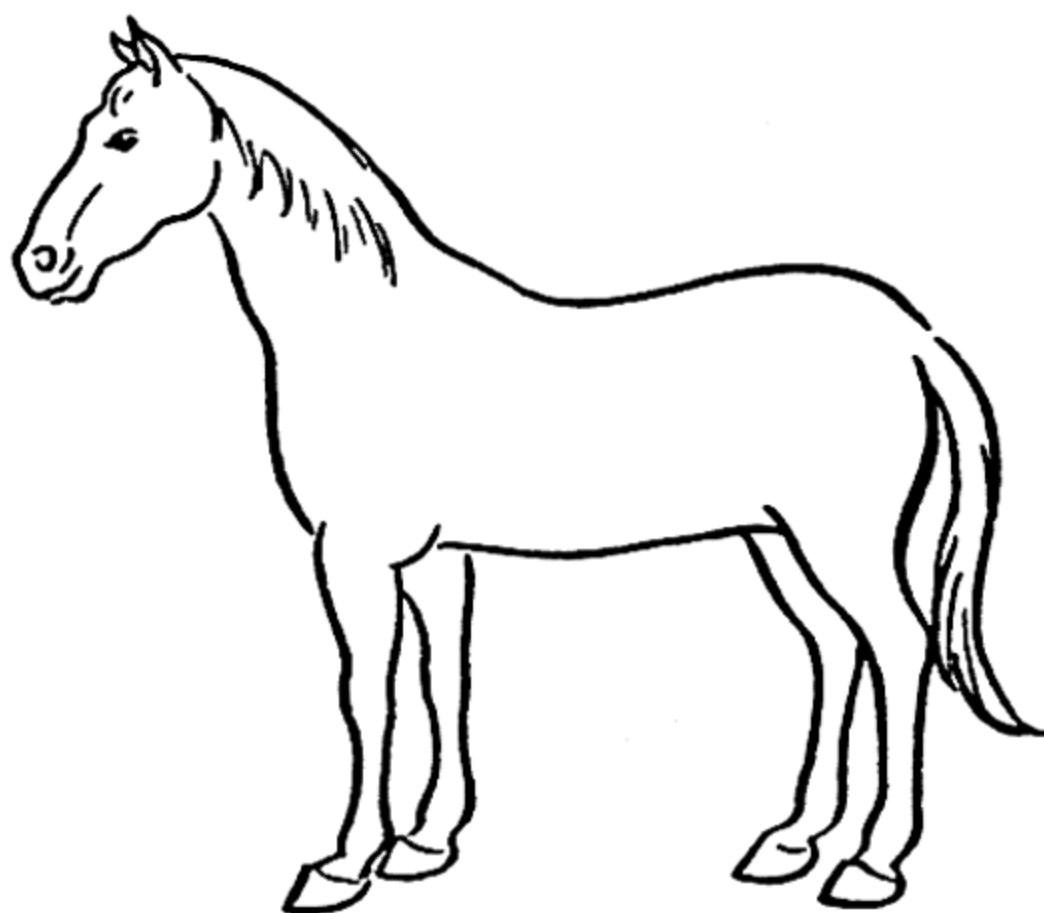
HORSE

Since textfilms are rapidly becoming an integral part of basic reading programs, a discussion of their values and uses will be presented here.

Textfilms

A textfilm is a filmstrip made to accompany a particular textbook. There are several different types in wide usage. One type is a film which accompanies a reader lesson by lesson.[1] There are pictures

[1] Filmstrips to accompany Laidlaw Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill.

for each story. New skills to be developed as well as new vocabulary are introduced in the film. Each frame resembles a lesson in the textbook closely enough to avoid confusing a child with additional problems of vocabulary and content. Memorization is prevented from taking the place of comprehension because although the vocabulary is the same, the story on a filmstrip is not an identical reproduction of the textbook page. When a child turns to a book after a textfilm presentation, he finds the material is familiar to him because the new words have already been introduced on the film. This gives him confidence in his ability to read a story. It provides a new visual approach also.

A second type of filmstrip is a textfilm which accompanies each basic reader and presents background information.[2] This textfilm shows pictures which are not the same as in the textbook but are related, poses questions, calls for individual and group activities, and makes a multisensory approach to learning.

With either type a simple shadow-box type of screen can be used effectively without disturbing the work in progress in a classroom.

A third type of textfilm is that designed for the improvement of reading skills, especially for vocabulary development. Although correlated closely with textbooks, most of the films can be used independently. One film of this type is "What's the Word?"[3] A series of twelve filmstrips present specific procedures pupils can use to identify words in context, initial consonants, vowels, dictionary usage, unusual use of words, prefixes and suffixes.

"Learning Letter Sounds"[4] is a series of twenty-two filmstrips for use in a first-grade reading program.

"Filmstrips for Practice in Phonetic Skills"[5] is a series of filmstrips planned to check and recheck skills, not to introduce them. Develop-

[2] Textfilms to accompany The Alice and Jerry Basic Reading Program, Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., New York.
[3] Textfilms to accompany The Reading for Meaning Series, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.
[4] Ibid.
[5] Textfilms to accompany The New Basic Reading Program, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago.

mental work preparatory to the use of a film is presented in teaching plans in a guidebook. There are four filmstrips, and each strengthens one phonetic skill: "Rhyme Time," "Beginning Sounds," "Letters and Sounds," and "Fun with Words."

Available with all textfilms of any type are teachers' manuals with directions for using the films most effectively.

VALUES OF TEXTFILMS.   Classroom use has proved textfilms to be highly effective in the following ways.

1. Motivating children to the extent that their interest and curiosity are stimulated to read a story.

2. Building a background of experience which adds meaning to words and ideas.

3. Centering attention on important points of a lesson. An enlarged picture enables children to observe important details more readily.

4. Providing common experiences. Children get ideas from films that they are able to discuss and share with other members of a group.   .

5. Developing effective habits of visual perception. Studies give evidence that increasing skill in visual perception is an important factor in success in reading. Reversals in reading, such as *saw* for *was* and *boat* for *toad*, are due often to poor visual discrimination. A textfilm for the development of skills can be used to project such words on large sheets of newsprint or on a chalkboard. A child may trace the large dotted-line manuscript, thus centering his attention on left-to-right sequence of letters within a word.

6. Developing ability to speak effectively. Projected pictures stimulate conversation among children.

7. Presenting new vocabulary of a story more effectively. Discussions of meanings of words are stimulated. Relative-size concepts can be more easily understood. With an enlarged picture it becomes easier for children to see, for example, how much taller an elephant is than a man.

8. Increasing security in the reading process. When a child has seen and discussed an enlarged version of a picture from a text and has read the new vocabulary in other context, there is a feeling of safeness and security built up when he begins to read from a book.

Children exclaim often, "I can read this whole story," and "I know these pictures." The vocabulary and pictures are old friends.

9. Providing interesting means for repetition of vocabulary and rereading. Many children, especially those less mature, need added experiences with reading material. They always enjoy rereading from the films.

10. Affording opportunity for effective summarization of stories. Under guidance children are able to view a film and quickly choose main points to make a good summary.

11. Enabling a teacher to place a new pupil more easily. A new child may be asked to read a story as it is projected. Easier or more difficult stories may be shown until the reading level of a child is found.

12. Diagnosing reading difficulties of children. When a teacher watches a child reading orally from a screen, difficulties become evident. Tendencies to reverse words, to omit words, to phrase improperly, to fail to interpret punctuation marks, and many other causes for poor reading become apparent.

CLASSROOM EXPERIMENTS.   A controlled experimental study made in the Philadelphia public schools is reported by Beatrice E. Bradley.[6] She summarizes their findings and raises an interesting question for further study.

. . . the data indicate that at the end of the first year the experimental group was considerably ahead of the control group. . . . As the two groups finished the second year, there was a definite decrease in the differences between the groups. And in the third year the control group was achieving as well as the experimental group.

Since both groups were achieving equally well at the end of the third year, why not consider the children's readiness and then use the slide technique of teaching readiness?

The same question was raised by Margaret A. Robinson.[7] She states:

[6] Beatrice E. Bradley, "Reading with a Dash of Showmanship," *Elementary School Journal,* October, 1960, pp. 28–31.

[7] Margaret A. Robinson, "Differentiating Instruction to Provide for the Needs of Learners," *New Frontiers in Reading,* International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, vol. 5, 1960, p. 30.

Related filmstrips projected on screen and blackboard as an aid to basal readers are often taught to a whole class. One would think that this highly motivated form of teaching would be even more effective if used with carefully selected groups. Here is an opportunity for comparative experimental work.

Several advantages of using textfilms that correlate with textbook stories are listed by Bradley and merit consideration.

1. Greater gain in reading during the first year made by children taught from textfilms.
2. Teachers' enthusiasm about the attention children gave to the reading lesson.
3. Children's increased ability to follow a lesson.
4. Reduction of eye strain with large projection.
5. Air of drama brought to reading class by vivid color and large type of screen projection, making learning to read more attractive.

Probably the most comprehensive experimentation in the use of textfilms has been carried on under the direction of Glenn Mc-Cracken in the program known as "The New Castle Reading Experiment."[8] A complete account of the experiment, in which ten New Castle, Pennsylvania, schools have engaged since 1947, is reported in his book, *The Right to Learn.*[9]

McCracken reports a 40 percent reading improvement at first-grade level. In a follow-up study of a class over a ten-year period, he states the following results and his conclusion:

The children in this class can read. Their junior high teachers tell us this year that they can read well in all of their course books. They will enter senior high school fully prepared for success. . . .

The New Castle Reading Experiment has proved that nearly every child can be a good reader if his reading program is interesting, imaginative, and modernized in other ways.

Numerous other experiments have been made by teachers in various parts of the United States. In every case results have been

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[8] Glenn McCracken, "Reading Instruction for the Space Age," *Education*, May, 1960, pp. 545–548.

[9] Glenn McCracken, *The Right to Learn*, Henry Regnery Company, Chicago, 1959.

highly favorable. There is significant evidence that textfilms are a very worthwhile part of a basic reading program.

Other Projections

Projections of various types, other than textfilms, stimulate interest in reading and afford opportunities for developing reading skills.

An opaque projector is one of the most useful means of providing experiences. An imaginative teacher can do much with this aid.

Children's creative writings can be reproduced for an entire class to read. When a child recognizes his own name and his story or poem on a screen, he becomes interested and wants to learn to read more stories. A shy child is encouraged to express himself because attention is focused on a screen and not on himself.

In addition to stories composed by a class, drawings, diagrams, charts, graphs, pictures, and pages from books can be reproduced for group study. Drawings or maps to be traced on paper or on a chalkboard can be enlarged for the children to copy.

Word confusions, such as *when* and *then*, can frequently be resolved by projecting the troublesome words on a chalkboard. For example, if *when* and *then* are confused, the word *when* is projected first. A pupil who is having difficulty traces over the image carefully. Next the word *then* is projected, superimposed exactly on top of the traced word. The child traces this image carefully. When he views his work, the projector being turned off, the points of difference are very vividly displayed.

Other types of projections may be used effectively. Stereographs give a definite three-dimensional feeling. Excellent scenic views and fairy tales can be used to stimulate small-group reading activities.

An overhead transparency projector allows a teacher to sit facing a class while she writes informative material or directions for pupils to read. This type of projection lends itself well to the creative writing of stories or poems by a whole class. In higher grades, a

recorder may write lines as they are suggested by the group. When finished, the entire story or poem is projected for all to read.

Recordings

The value of effective listening and its relationship to success in reading was discussed in Chapter 6.

Recordings offer unlimited opportunity for listening experiences. They are valuable, too, for building background and stimulating interest. They are available for a great range of topics, can fit into a classroom schedule, and can be previewed by a teacher. An added advantage is that a recording can be stopped at any point discussed and replayed.

Albums of records to accompany reading programs are available with some basic reading series. Ginn,[10] for example, has a set of four albums to accompany the first-grade program; they are described as follows:

"Songs about Stories" give children an enjoyable means of reviewing certain stories and provide incentive for further reading, discussion, and dramatization. Included are songs for singing games and action songs. . . .

Another album they provide is entitled "Let's Listen" and is described as follows:

An album of three LP Records gives training for reading readiness, for introducing phonics, and for speech development in a way that appeals strongly to children . . . self teaching records . . . develop awareness of similarities and differences in the sounds of words; provide practice in making sounds; . . . and develop effective listening skills.

"Sounds Around Us"[11] is an album of those records designed to bring into the classroom actual sounds children may never have

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[10] "Helpful Teaching Aids," The Ginn Basic Readers, Ginn and Company, Boston.

[11] "Teaching Aids and Equipment," Planning for Better Reading, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago.

heard, or never before noticed. They are valuable to children in interpreting stories, discriminating sounds, and developing a foundation for phonic analysis.

Tape recordings provide one of the strongest motivating factors for better reading, talking and listening. Children delight in hearing their own voices, and strive hard to improve them. Free expression and imagination are fostered.

The diagnostic value of tape recordings should not be overlooked. Children respond well to criticism of their reading when it is made after they hear their recordings. They are removed personally from the discussion; their attention is focused on the machine. Thus there is an objectivity which allows children to accept and profit by criticism of their work when it is presented by means of a tape recorder.

One little fellow who showed little interest in learning to read was given an opportunity to read a preprimer story for a tape recording. When the tape was played back, Jimmy listened intently to the entire reading. Then he turned to his teacher and said, "Who was that?" When the teacher told him that it was he, Jimmy said with great feeling, "Gosh, that was awful to listen to. I got to do better." And he did!

Television

Teaching by television is the fastest growing development in the history of American education, according to a report of the IRA Television Research Committee.[12] They point out that there was practically no use of television in the schools in the middle 1950's but that now there are more than 500 school districts and 120 colleges using it in instructional programs.

Teachers and parents have felt that it was both a menace and a blessing. Some teachers have taken a very gloomy outlook, feeling

[12] Arthur S. McDonald, "TV: Good Servant or Evil Genie," *The Reading Teacher*, April, 1960, pp. 295–296.

certain that it would take children's interests away from reading and make classrooms seem very dull.

Fortunately, however, television has had the opposite effect on children's reading. A report of the Committee summarizes their findings in several areas. In the area of interest they reported that television when properly used was found to promote a significant change in children's reading interests. It also encouraged wider reading. An analysis of a study made with 1,500 fifth- and sixth-grade children in Schenectady showed "a distinct shift in the children's reading interests toward the interest area presented in the television series." Accompanying the shift in interest a much greater amount of reading was reported also.

The report of a study made in Delmar, New York, states that "favorite television programs of children can be a rich resource in the reading program of the elementary school by relating TV interests to the world of books."[13]

A report by Sister Miriam states that television is "a veritable bonanza for teachers"[14] offering much that can be used to promote interest and stimulate children in becoming critical thinkers through more intelligent televiewing.

The use of television to teach reading skills is still in its infancy. It is used most frequently in grades beyond the primary level. The IRA Television Research Committee in a nationwide survey found a great many different methods for using television for reading instruction. Nila Banton Smith describes a typical method as follows:

The classroom teacher takes a few minutes to introduce the lesson. Thus the lesson is presented by television. Often the lesson is conducted by a television teacher, while the classroom teacher conducts discussion and individualizes the group presentation.[15]

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[13] Nina T. Flierl, "Using Television Interests to Build Reading," *New Frontiers in Reading,* International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, vol. 5, 1960, pp. 121–124.

[14] Sister Miriam, O.P., "Can the Teacher Improve Pupil Discrimination in Television and Reading?" *New Frontiers in Reading, ibid.,* pp. 124–127.

[15] Nila Banton Smith, "Differentiating Instruction to Provide for the Needs of Learners Through Methods and Materials," *New Frontiers in Reading, ibid.,* p. 27.

The IRA Committee points out also that teleteaching is a full time job. It opens up a new area in the field of reading. Results of studies show a great need for further experimentation to find the most effective ways to use this medium. Television, wisely used, can be a valuable sensory aid in learning to read.

Bulletin Boards

One sensory aid which is available to every teacher but is very often misused or neglected entirely is the bulletin board. Seldom do teachers use bulletin boards as effectively as they might.

A very interesting study in which teachers experimented with using bulletin boards was made by supervisors, principals, and teachers in Cedar Grove, New Jersey.[16] The conclusions they reached were in accord with findings disclosed by other studies. Some of the basic principles resulting from these studies which should be observed in using bulletin boards to stimulate sensory learnings are given here.

1. Bulletin boards should be used as part of a teacher's work, not just as a decoration on a wall. They are a means to an end, not an end in themselves.
2. A bulletin board should communicate ideas. It should stimulate and provoke thought in children's minds.
3. It should be changed frequently and kept up to date. Bulletin boards are of little value if merely put up by a teacher and then forgotten.
4. A bulletin board is valuable to a person who uses it, and to the people who prepare it. The children themselves should have a part in planning, preparing, and arranging exhibits.
5. Bulletin boards should be attractively and neatly arranged.
6. Planning, preparing, and arranging a bulletin board should provide wholesome social as well as educational experiences for pupils.

Three main types of bulletin boards are the "pin-up" board, the "poster" board, and the "can do" board.

[16] Elizabeth Parker, "Teachers Study Use of Bulletin Board," *Educational Leadership*, March, 1959.

A pin-up board displays a collection of materials related to the same subject and having one general purpose. These boards usually show such things as children's work, group contributions, or news.

A poster board presents one idea in a forceful dramatic way. It stimulates and provokes thought, and offers some information which will lead to answers. A very effective bulletin board of this type was used by Daryl Jarrett in her second-grade classroom.

The caption was "Are clouds cotton?" Interesting pictures of the four main kinds of clouds were displayed: cirrus—high, white, and fluffy; cumulus—white and fluffy with flat bases; stratus—without very definite form like those commonly seen in winter; and nimbo-stratus—gray and dark, the kind expected to bring rainy or snowy weather. Beside each picture was mounted a fluff of real cotton.

An immediate response from pupils was to touch the cotton. Instantly they asked the question, "What are clouds made of?" A stimulating discussion followed, with the result that a very interesting unit on the study of clouds was begun.

What children frequently call a can-do board is one in which the viewer does something with the board. This category includes such devices as an electric questioner in which a viewer pushes a button to find an answer to a question shown on the board.

Bulletin boards are available in every classroom. They are a means of providing sensory aids for reading that is within the reach of every teacher. If well used, they make an important contribution to pupil growth and development in learning to read.

A Summary Statement

The sensory aids discussed in this chapter and many others can be used by teachers to enrich reading programs. Some are old and well known; others are new. Wise teachers are constantly on the alert for better ways to use all sensory aids—textfilms, chalkboard, charts, demonstrations, diagrams, graphs, dramatizations, exhibits, field trips, flannelboards, models, photographs, drawings, pictures, posters, radio, and television—to make reading live for children.

These media do not supplant books; they are not a substitute for reading experiences. There is no magic formula which, just by bringing children and materials together, produces a good reader. Intelligently used, sensory aids uncover the meaning behind a printed page and coax a child into the "wonderland of reading."
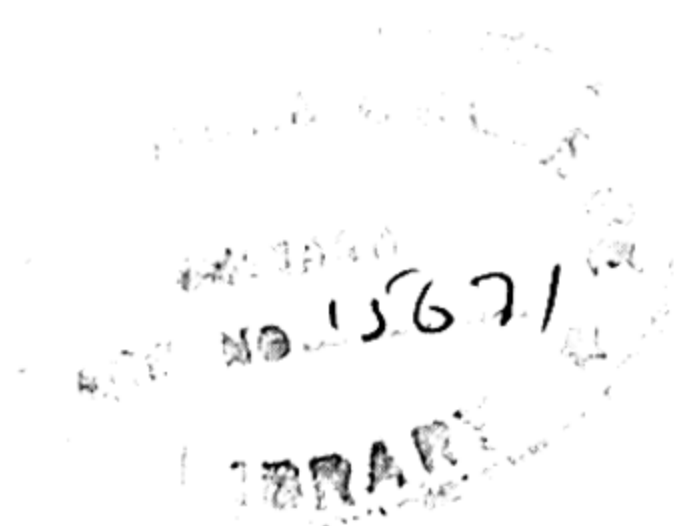
CHAPTER 23 ✦ BUILDING BETTER PARENTAL RELATIONS

Importance of Parents to School Program

THE HOME and the school are two most powerful forces in molding the personality of a child and in determining his success in learning to read to the limits of his ability. Parents and teachers must work in common to develop the whole child. Continuous growth in reading can come only through the sharing and planning together of the home and school. Like all areas of human relations, there must be a give-and-take if pupils' problems are to be solved. The most complete development of a child comes from mutual cooperation between home and school. Both are approaching the same problem. The point of view is different. If the goal is to be realized there must be created a close interdependence of the two agencies. They must agree upon a course of action that is best for a child.

A teacher must help parents understand the total development of the child if reading is to be put into its proper perspective. She must help them realize that it is the responsibility of the home to offer children an atmosphere in which sturdy physical, mental, social, and emotional growth is realized. For success in school work, children need affection, security and sympathetic guidance. Parents are spared much anxiety and are freed to establish a favorable atmosphere when they learn to look upon reading growth in the same way that they consider physical growth. Each is a gradual developmental process which goes on at different rates for different children. Guidance in these understandings must come from professional people in education if the public is to accept the modern classroom. A school staff must take the lead in establishing a program for parent support.

Sources of Difficulty in Establishing Parental Relations

Parents are human, too. Despite their common goals, teachers and parents are often at odds. Parents feel sometimes that teachers are invading their homes, and teachers accuse parents of intruding upon the classroom. Such conflicts must be resolved if a successful reading program is to be developed. Before they can be resolved it is necessary to examine the reasons for these misunderstandings. Some of the most common pitfalls are discussed here.

Lack of understanding of a school program. Many teachers and administrators neglect to discuss with parents the principles upon which a reading program is based. Parents become anxious over a child's academic progress. In an attempt to be helpful they try home instruction, which may be a great source of annoyance to a teacher and may result in serious damage to a child's reading-growth pattern.

This lack of understanding of present-day methods of teaching reading was evident in the remark of a young mother who, upon meeting a friend who was a teacher, said with much feeling, "How do they teach reading today? It just does not make sense. The other day Dorothy brought home a preprimer to read. They had read it in class. She got stuck on the word *you*. I told her to spell it. She said, 'I don't know the letters but it begins with *yellow.*'" A brief explanation of how a child learns to read changed the mother's critical attitude toward the school to one of wholesome respect for present-day methods.

Lack of understanding of present-day methods and curriculum by the teacher. Things are happening so rapidly in the school curriculum that many teachers fail to understand the philosophy of the times and its implication in teaching reading. Some of the personnel have not kept up with the results of research in child growth. They

are unable to interpret a program to parents because they do not understand how children's reading-growth patterns develop. It is essential that school staffs work together in planning a curriculum and in understanding the philosophy of present-day reading so that they may interpret them to parents.

Efforts to protect vested interests. Some parents feel that the teacher is trying to invade the home. Because of a lack of understanding of the interdependence of home and school, they resent a teacher who infringes upon "home rights."

In like manner, some teachers and administrators fear the community. They do not feel that laymen are qualified to participate in a school program. They are uncertain about their own ability to guide intelligent community participation in a school program lest laymen dominate the situation.

Personal inadequacies of parents. Proper relationships between home and school are not established at times because parents do not fulfill their responsibilities. Some parents are maladjusted to such a point that their children suffer. Parents who reject a child make it very difficult for a school to build in the child a wholesome personality. Parents who refuse to come to school for conferences, who fail to respond to notes and letters, who are overprotective to a point that they fail to recognize any weakness in a child make it difficult for a school to build the most effective program for a child's development.

Personal inadequacies of teachers. Some teachers have not learned how to guide children to their maximum development. They are unable to work with them without dominating them, without destroying their enthusiasm, without creating fears and tensions. In such cases parent-teacher relationships are bound to be impaired.

Ways to Build Better Parental Relations

When parents fail to understand a school program, feel insecure, do not fulfill their responsibilities to a school, or are afraid to "inter-

fere" in school matters, a school staff can win their support by its own cooperative attitudes and by a strong program for interpreting reading methods and philosophy.

Weaknesses that arise from lack of understanding of present-day methods and curriculum by teachers, and personal inadequacies of a teacher, must be cleared up before a program can be interpreted to the public. Ways to handle these problems are discussed in the following chapter, "Participating in In-Service Education Programs."

It is assumed that the best possible ways of teaching reading are being used. There is no excuse for slipshod, unintelligent procedures in basic language-arts areas. There is too much research help available for any school to expect anything but the best in developing every child in reading to the limits of his ability. When the best possible job is being done, attention should be given to interpreting the program and enlisting parents' interest and cooperation.

Many communities are carrying on effective public relations programs. Many different plans are being followed. There are no set rules to use. Considerable ingenuity is needed by a staff in arousing and holding the interest of parents. A thorough understanding of the philosophy of teaching reading is needed in interpreting the methods used. Some successful methods for establishing closer relationships are discussed here.

Encouragement of school visiting. Parents become acquainted with a school program by visiting informally in a classroom. Many teachers win the support of a community by encouraging parents to visit for a few minutes or longer when they are in the neighborhood. Chairs arranged at the back of a room allow them to enter and leave without disturbing a group. The initial invitation states that teachers will be free to talk with parents about their observations at a specified time each week. In this way a parent can see how his child reacts in a classroom situation and have a better background for parent-teacher conferences held later.

One third-grade teacher worked out a very successful program with parents by inviting them to an informal meeting the second week of school. After serving simple refreshments she explained

briefly the objectives of the program for the year. Each parent was invited and urged to participate on one or more committees to help in carrying out activities of the year. Every parent participated before the year was over. They were enthusiastic. Several parents expressed the feeling that it was the first time they had felt welcome in school.

Many teachers have used a "reading party" successfully. When a group of children complete a section of a reader or a whole book, they plan a simple party, inviting their parents for the last hour in the afternoon. Each child has a social responsibility to welcome and introduce his parents. Then he reads one story or a section of a story to his parents. Later he serves his mother or father cookies and punch or other simple refreshments. During the ensuing social period parents have an opportunity to ask questions about their children and the reading program.

Requirement of home visiting by teachers. Some schools set aside time for teachers to visit the home of each child during the first part of the year. In many communities primary teachers are required to visit the home of each child during the first few weeks. Results have been so gratifying that many teachers other than those of first grades have adopted the policy.

Invitation to parents to participate in carrying out school activities. Valuable educative experiences have been provided by parents in many schools. Members of a community can render valuable assistance as resource persons. A publication of the United States Office of Education[1] lists a number of ways by which citizens can provide educative experiences. Among the ways in which parents can help are the following:

1. Helping with transportation.
2. Offering special facilities, as the use of a father's darkroom for photography.
3. Showing colored films and slides of places visited.
4. Lecturing or talking with the children about other parts of the world in which they have lived, e.g., as a missionary to China.

[1] *Working with Parents Handbook,* Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin no. 7, 1948.

Organization of parent-teacher study groups. Organization of parents on a classroom basis has produced excellent results. Parents and teacher meet periodically during the year and together study modern methods of teaching reading. The teacher guides the study. Literature explaining the application of child growth and development theories to the teaching of reading forms a basis for discussion groups. Excellent materials can be obtained from the Association of Childhood Education, 1200 15th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., and from the United States Office of Education.

One of the most valuable books for parents to study—a very enjoyable and readable book packed with information and suggestions for parents is *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading*.[2] In this book Nancy Larrick addresses herself to parents and gives them information in sections with the following titles:

How You Can Help Day In and Day Out
Surround Him with Books
How Reading Is Taught Today
Books and Magazines for Children
For More Information

Organization of new parents. Many schools have preschool clinics or conferences during which time mothers of entering children meet the professional staff and are given information about a school and its program. Some schools provide information in printed form also, to enable parents to have it for later reference. The teachers and county administrators of St. Clair County, Michigan, compiled a very complete bulletin which is presented during a preschool conference to the parents of children entering school. In Dade County, Florida, the teachers have worked out similar materials. Their attractive booklet includes the following:

A Message to Parents
The Part Parents Play
Building for Health
Building for Happiness

[2] Nancy Larrick, *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading*, Doubleday & Company, Inc., Garden City, N.Y., 1958.

Building Other Good Habits
Stories with Which Your Child Should Be Familiar
Information Your Child Should Have Before Coming to School
A Quiz Program for Parents
Trips to Take
Information to Parents
A List of Free and Inexpensive Materials
Libraries in the Vicinity

Organization of official parent-teacher associations. Parent-teacher organizations can serve a real purpose in a school and in bringing about closer relationships and better understanding of the school in a community. With good guidance and a real effort to enlist all parents as members, mutual understandings can be gained. Many of the meetings can be devoted to enabling parents to gain an intimate knowledge of newer methods of teaching reading. Many parents become discouraged with local P.T.A.'s because attention is centered almost entirely on physical aspects of a school and on social meetings. Proper guidance enables a group to maintain a good balance between professional and social activities.

Round-table discussions of parents' questions. Meetings for the parents of primary and intermediate groups with selected members of a professional staff for round-table discussions of the questions parents ask are a successful method of interpreting the work of a school. Questions may be gathered over a period of time. Dr. Bess Goodykoontz[3] lists a number of parents' criticisms and suggests answers. The following are examples of parents' comments:

Children don't even know the alphabet!
Children don't learn to read and write as well in the first grade as they used to!
They promote everybody nowadays whether they know the work or not!

A study of research findings on questions and criticisms made by parents will bring enlightening information to both parents and

[3] Bess Goodykoontz, "Reading and Language as They Relate to Public Relations," *A Report of the Sixth Annual Conference on Reading,* The University of Pittsburgh Press, 1950, pp. 44–52.

teachers. Friendly discussions will bring about mutual understandings.

Conferences with parents. Individual conferences with parents have proved very successful. They permit parents and teachers to learn directly about a child's behavior and adjustments. A parent can furnish information about a child's problems as viewed from the home. Teacher and parent work toward mutual agreement on the best plan for guiding a child in his growth and development. This makes parents feel that they are participants in a child's education.

Conferences should always be conducted in a friendly manner. Parents should be invited to come in for conferences when children are getting along well. Too often teachers have required conferences only when difficulties are encountered. This action creates a negative attitude rather than a positive one toward a school. One teacher who had difficulty contacting parents began to call in parents when their child made a contribution to the group or was outstanding for some reason. The first mother to be called in was the mother of an unusually healthy little boy. The teacher commended the parents and asked if the mother would tell her about her health program for her son so that she might help other mothers. It was not very long before parents were waiting eagerly for invitations to confer with the teacher.

If the people conducting conferences are cordial and friendly, the parents soon learn to cooperate. Discussions must be kept on a simple plane. There should be no comparisons of one child's work with that of another. If a child is developing slowly academically, admirable personal traits or aptitudes in other lines should be brought out.

No child or parent should leave a conference feeling inferior. Recommendations that can be carried out should be given to the parents to aid further development of the child.

Reports in many districts indicate that a majority of parents attend special parent-day interviews, that the response is enthusiastic, and that parents express gratitude for the service.

Progress reports to parents. The greatest contact between school

and home is probably through a pupil's progress report. This instrument is powerful in creating good or bad relations with the public. It can become a very effective means of enlisting parent cooperation and of building understanding of the methods and curriculum of a school. A more complete discussion of reporting to parents is found in Part Eight, "A Teacher Evaluates a Reading Program."

A Summary Statement

A successful teacher uses every means available to build better parental relations. Teachers who have learned to work with parents have found their tasks lightened. Together teacher, parent, and pupil can reach goals of much greater height than when working alone.

CHAPTER 24 ✦ PARTICIPATING IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

EACH YEAR research gives us new insights into the ways children grow and develop educationally. Progress demands that there be no permanent best answers in teaching. A teacher must strive constantly to achieve professional advancement. A good teacher will never stop learning. She will confer with other teachers, exchange ideas on methods, and learn through doing. She realizes that she must strive constantly for better ways to help build the child.

A teacher is a craftsman inspired like any other artist. With creative imagination and good methods, she launches a child on his reading career. The success or failure of a child in his whole life lies largely in her hands. She has a great responsibility. If she has a professional conscience she will master techniques that will add effectiveness to her work just as any artist studies and works to produce a masterpiece. A child is worthy of all the efforts that are required to develop him to the limits of his ability.

A teacher who accepts this responsibility and challenge must seek knowledge of what has been accomplished and must be prepared to master the essential techniques. She must work with other members of a group to find most effective means of achieving these results. There is a tremendous potential of professional knowledge possessed by teachers which can be tapped by sharing only. It is a well-known fact that teachers learn in the same way children do; that learning occurs in the same way at all levels. Yet many schools that operate democratically and supply rich experiences for sharing with varieties of activities where pupils are concerned content themselves with formal faculty meetings that offer nothing for professional or social development.

Teachers must do their learning through sharing and experimenting. Staff members find group work stimulating and rewarding. There is a definite trend toward greater teacher cooperation in curriculum making and in developing more effective instructional pro-

grams. Planning and working with the administrative staff gives teachers feelings of security and satisfaction which are reflected in their successful classrooms.

The development of a staff into a working unit requires time and practice. For this reason more and more in-service programs are being inaugurated in progressive school systems. More effective teachers' meetings, workshop programs, post- and preplanning sessions, and many other types of in-service educational programs help a teacher to realize her capabilities as an artist in the molding of a child's life. Several of these programs will be discussed here.

More Effective Teachers' Meetings

One of the greatest contrasts between the old school and the new is the way in which faculty meetings are organized and executed. The attitude of a teacher in the old school was to expect nothing and to wait impatiently for a meeting to end. Teachers did not feel they had any part. A meeting was usually centered about routine announcements and faultfinding. There was very little opportunity for securing ideas about better teaching. The teachers felt it was imposing upon their time, and rightly so in many cases if the time spent was to be justified on the basis of professional growth.

Today a staff meeting is considered one of the best means for improving the quality of the staff, the teaching methods, and the entire school program. There are many opportunities for sharing ideas, thinking cooperatively, presenting stimulating talks, solving problems of home and school, and developing better methods of teaching. All of these experiences help a teacher to grow professionally and personally.

How meetings are planned. Meetings should be centered on the problems and topics that the teachers feel are important. The teaching of reading might well be the theme of meetings for one school year. Each teacher should have an equal right to offer any problem she feels is important. A planning committee which includes both

teachers and administrative officers should set up an agenda before a meeting. It should be duplicated and distributed among members or posted on a bulletin board long enough before a meeting to enable teachers to be prepared to discuss the issues.

Items that are easy to solve should be brought up first and decisions reached to give teachers a feeling of accomplishment. For major problems, such as improvement of parent-teacher conferences, and basic principles of reading instruction, study committees should be appointed. These people should be given time to collect their data and organize material for presentation. The next meeting should be devoted to a consideration of the proposals of the committee. Plans for experimenting should be formulated. A meeting should always close with complete summary of decisions reached, recommendations made, and a brief restatement of problems referred back to the committee for further study.

How meetings are executed. The success of a faculty meeting depends upon the skill of the leader. He may be the principal or a discussion leader chosen by a group. An advantage of having an elected discussion leader is that it enables a principal to participate more freely in discussions.

A good leader has many responsibilities to a group. He must build an easy atmosphere that encourages every member to participate. Shy members must be brought out while those who tend to dominate must be held in check. Yet a leader must be impartial in his attitude in the presentation of each idea. It is his responsibility to clarify ideas, to bring out pertinent issues, to keep a discussion centered on a topic, and to summarize points made from time to time. He needs to watch a meeting closely to be sure he is holding the attention and filling the needs of the group. One of the most effective ways of determining his success as a group leader is to have participants evaluate a meeting or fill in a personal participation form.

Each participant has a responsibility if a faculty meeting is to be successful. He cannot sit by and let others do the work. It is his duty to contribute ideas and suggestions concerning a problem that is being discussed. He must listen to others and think clearly, utiliz-

FACULTY MEETING

Date   School

Name

Topic Considered	Personal Participation	Comments
How to group children for reading instruction		

ing all facts that are brought out as well as his own experience. He must consider suggestions and ideas on their own merit, not on the personal merit of the contributor. Wrangling and petty arguments should be avoided. If a point is not clear, he should ask the discussion leader to have it clarified. On the basis of all evidence he should summarize his thinking and state clearly and briefly his conclusions concerning the solution of a problem. Each participant should feel himself responsible for keeping the meeting on the topics to be considered and for keeping the meeting moving along so that everyone leaves with a feeling of accomplishment.

An outside resource person may be brought in as consultant on some major problems. A reading specialist from a college or university, for example, may be invited occasionally to participate. He is brought in to help solve problems which have emerged from group meetings. The information he supplies should be evaluated, its applicability to a specific problem decided, and suggestions used or discarded in accordance with findings of the group.

When meetings are held. A regular program of study-type meetings should be planned in advance at the beginning of a school year by a faculty-meeting planning committee. There must be opportunities for long periods of uninterrupted thinking. There is a trend to incorporate this type of in-service education into a regular school day to enable teachers to give full attention to issues. Time should be worked out by a planning committee.

Where meetings are held. A library or any pleasant room with

movable furniture where members can be comfortable may be used. There should be a chalkboard available. A circle arrangement of seating seems to be very satisfactory because all members can see one another. It suggests the unity of a group. Better exchange of ideas and more participation in a discussion result from being able to face each other. The physical setup is an important contributing factor to the success of meetings.

To relieve tension and develop a better feeling among teachers so that they can disagree in their discussions in an agreeable manner, simple refreshments should be served—a cup of coffee brewed on a hot plate or an ice-cream cup from the cafeteria. This gives the faculty an opportunity to get to know one another better and to exchange bits of information.

What records should be kept. During a meeting a record should be kept on a chalkboard of the issues that are being discussed. Points that are made by various members and any agreements reached should be listed briefly under each major issue. If a chalkboard is not available this running record may be kept on large sheets of chart paper fastened on the bulletin board.

In addition a permanent record of every meeting should be kept. This should include the names of members who are present and absent, the date, major topics discussed, suggestions made, decisions reached, committees appointed, problems that need further study, and plans for the next meeting. This record should be duplicated and a copy given to each staff member to enable him to have a complete outline of the year's work.

A SUMMARY STATEMENT

When faculty meetings are planned and organized for furthering the education of administrative and faculty members on pertinent issues in teaching reading, much greater success will be attained in a reading program. A staff will build a wholesome philosophy which can be successfully interpreted to the public. Community relations as well as the reading program will be greatly improved.

Educational Workshops

The workshop is an outgrowth of the need of teachers and administrative groups to attack in a practical manner the educational problems confronting them. It is usually sponsored jointly by a university, college, or national organization and a local school system. It is staffed in part by a local school system to ensure a practical approach to problems being studied and in part by consultants from outside the group. These consultants are usually specialists in the areas under consideration.

Admission to a workshop is determined by the philosophy of those in charge of the organization. In some cases college credit may be given. Here admittance is usually voluntary. In other areas workshop participation is credited toward professional growth. Still other districts make a workshop part of the school year, and all staff members are expected to participate. The most successful results are obtained when members elect to participate because they have a real need for the experiences. Then they enter into the program with enthusiasm.

The length of time a workshop is conducted varies from two to three days to several weeks; or it may be a continuing workshop over a period of a semester or school year. It should be long enough to enable a staff to concentrate on the problems to be studied.

The plan of operation is flexible. A tentative schedule for the first day or two is usually set up by a planning committee to enable a group to get under way with a minimum loss of time. If revisions are desirable, they are suggested by the group and the schedule is reorganized accordingly. Since one of the basic purposes of a workshop is to give a staff the opportunity to know one another better so that they may work more closely on common problems, social interchange is usually encouraged by planning the time schedule to include social activities. Provisions for experiences in art, music, and other creative activities are made also. Specific plans must be developed by each individual workshop group.

Frequent evaluations are an essential part of a workshop. To-

gether the participants and staff should evaluate critically the progress that is being made and revise their working plans in light of their findings. Each member should be encouraged to evaluate his own progress as well as that of the group.

An efficient workshop will utilize many committees. Committee work is an important experience. Besides a planning committee there may be committees responsible for social activities, library facilities, decorations, publicity, and integration of the work of various groups. It may be necessary to have a committee that is responsible for making the findings of a group available to each member. One member should be chosen to be recorder and keep an accurate record of the activities of each workshop session. A record should be available for easy reference at all times.

The basic purpose of a workshop is to allow the staff to work together on common problems with the assistance of resource people. Very successful workshops have been carried on in many places. Both in St. Clair County and in Genessee County, Michigan, rural teachers were confronted with a problem of providing experiences preparatory to reading for beginner's groups in their rural schools. In each county teachers met with county administrative officers and planned with the field-service department of Eastern Michigan University for a summer workshop session devoted to the solution of this problem. For several weeks in the summer teachers and administrators, with the guidance of a reading specialist from the University, developed a practical handbook of classroom activities to foster reading experiences at the beginners' level. These booklets were printed by the University. Copies were given to each participant for use in his own school. Teachers felt a great sense of achievement and satisfaction since they had solved in a practical way one of their major needs.

Other In-Service Teacher Education Programs

Post- and preschool planning conferences. Post- and preschool planning conferences have become very popular in recent years.

Many administrators and teachers have felt that, in addition to regular faculty meetings during the year, there needs to be a period of time available in which there are no interruptions. With adequate resources a staff and sometimes parents and local school-board members work together to develop a better educational program for the coming year. This may vary from a one-day conference to a two-week planning session.

There are many reasons why this type of educational program has developed. Community pressure for better schools, a need to orient new teachers, a need for teachers of the same grade level to plan together, a need for teachers of different grade levels to plan together to work out a sequential program of development for children, the advisability of having classroom teachers and special teachers integrate their work, the use of resource persons, and opportunity for greater use of a professional library are a few reasons why school districts have felt these experiences were necessary.

Successful planning conferences help a staff to begin a new school year with inspiration and confidence in their ability to develop a good program. Herrick, Johnston, and Pease,[1] in an article entitled "What Makes a Good Preschool Planning Conference?" list certain characteristics. Some of their criteria together with others found to be successful are listed here.

1. Problems and centers of interest must be pertinent to the concern of the teachers.
2. Projects and activities should be outgrowths of previous activities and planning.
3. Staff must be able to appreciate the value of these problems in their work for the coming year.
4. Projects and activities selected should be those that will contribute to the socializing and recognition of a participant, that will enable a teacher to deal with specific tasks in her own classroom, and that deal with problems of concern to building groups and total staff.
5. Planning and evaluation must provide real educational experiences as well as contribute to future plans.

[1] V. E. Herrick, A. M. Johnston, and James E. Pease, "What Makes a Good Preschool Planning Conference?" *Elementary School Journal*, April, 1949, pp. 438–445.

6. Plans should assure the development of proper materials and resources, such as instructional materials for pupils and teachers, curriculum bulletins, and workshop libraries.
7. There should be active participation by all members of a group. This may include parents and members of a school board as well as the staff.
8. There should be constant evaluation and further planning in light of the findings.
9. Leadership among members of a group should be developed. Good leadership is important for interpreting schools to the public.
10. There should be follow-up through the school year to see if the outcomes are being achieved.
11. Planning for future sessions should be based on the experiences gained during the conference.

Postplanning conferences are held in many school districts at the close of a school year. The purpose is to enable the staffs of the various schools in a district to work on problems and plans for the next school year. Each school staff plans its own program with the assistance of the administrative staff. Consultants from a local university and resource people may be called in for general sessions, with all schools participating when problems are common to several areas. Problems such as those listed here are frequently of interest to staffs.

1. An evaluation of progress. What have we done to advance our children in their growth and development this year? How can we continue this growth and development and improve our program?
2. Phases of growth and development among children. What provisions should be made for challenging all pupils?
3. Solution of reading problems in a classroom.
4. Relationship of discipline to reading.
5. Promotion of pupils. On what basis should they be advanced or retained?
6. The guidance program of an elementary school. Its relationship to the reading program.

The increasing popularity of post- and preplanning sessions indicates that they are meeting a real need in educational programs. *Zone meetings.* Zone meetings of rural teachers sponsored jointly

by the county administrative staff and the field-service department of a teachers' college or university are very effective. Teachers from about twenty rural schools meet one afternoon a month with representatives from the county administration and a consultant from a college to work on problems of common interest. School is dismissed at noon and an entire afternoon is devoted to a consideration and study of the problems.

In Jackson County, Michigan, a planning committee consisting of one representative from each area and the administrative staff met early in the year to decide on areas of concentration for that school year. Specialists in these areas were then procured from a college. Committees were appointed and working plans made. During the year teachers of a zone shared the responsibilities of acting as hosts or hostesses. The meeting was held at a different school each month. Part of the afternoon was devoted to social interchange. A teacher of the school where the meeting was held and one or two assistants from the group served refreshments. As a result the rural teachers felt a sense of unity and developed a better educational program.

Practicums. School faculties desiring to work on a particular problem can work cooperatively with a college or university. Such problems as the importance of reading in a classroom, interpreting a reading program to a community, and the reading curriculum provide centers of interest for a group. These practicums are usually carried on for a semester or a year with college credit given for the work.

Evening and extension classes. Many state colleges and universities help meet the needs of teachers and administrators through evening and extension classes. If there are a sufficient number of people from a district interested in a course offered by the institution to warrant the formation of a class, they may request an extension class at their school. A class carries regular college credit.

Conferences, clinics, institutes, and programs of professional organizations. Such activities provide additional opportunities for professional growth. Teachers participate in educational experiences

that enable them to do their work more effectively. Demonstrations of new methods are presented. Panel discussions present differing points of view on controversial issues. Participation in such activities helps a teacher to formulate her own philosophy and to achieve a much greater degree of success in her work.

CRITERIA FOR SUCCESSFUL IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

Successful in-service programs meet certain criteria. Some of the important factors are given here.

1. Time within a school day and school year is provided for these programs.
2. Participation is on a voluntary basis.
3. Problems and centers of interest are selected by a staff.
4. Direction and guidance of a program are done by committees selected by a group.
5. Programs develop a teacher and administrator socially and emotionally, as well as professionally.
6. Results are shared by an entire group.
7. School and community resources are utilized.
8. The whole program and individual contributions are evaluated periodically by a group.
9. Future plans are made in accordance with findings of the evaluation.

A Summary Statement

This chapter presented many types of in-service programs for teachers and administrators. Organization, purposes, and values of faculty meetings, educational workshops, post- and preplanning sessions, zone meetings, practicums, and other educational experiences were discussed. Educational opportunities offered through participation in evening and extension classes, conferences, clinics, institutes, and professional organizations were given. Criteria for evaluating workshops and cooperative in-service programs were listed.

A teacher evaluates a reading program

READING is a continuous growth process. To be sure a child is developing in reading growth to the limits of his ability a continuous program of appraisal and evaluation is necessary. Evaluation is an integral part of a reading program.

True learning causes changes in behavior. If we accept the belief that reading plays a part in the total development of a child, then opportunities for evaluating these changes in behavior must be many and varied. Aims of modern reading programs go beyond the mere acquisition of reading skills. Accordingly an evaluation program concerns itself not only with reading competencies but with more general abilities also. Reading interests, aptitudes, and personality changes must be appraised insofar as they are related to reading. The program is one of pupil growth in and through

reading. The effects of a program on the children depend upon an effective evaluative program. Good evaluation procedures are a part of good teaching.

A good evaluative program is set up in accordance with certain criteria. First, it is necessary to have clear-cut objectives that can be described. Second, experiences through which these objectives can be realized and materials for their attainment must be set up. Third, pupil behavior indicative of successful instruction must be determined. Fourth, techniques for measuring growth and changes in behavior must be selected. Fifth, results must be analyzed and interpreted with inferences drawn regarding the attained and unattained objectives. Finally, plans for bringing about needed changes in future instruction must be developed.

CHAPTER 25 ✦ APPRAISING THE GROWTH
OF CHILDREN

TRENDS IN EVALUATION

AT ONE TIME the results of standardized tests were considered sufficient for determining a pupil's success in learning to read. Today educators realize that since reading growth is a complicated process it is not enough to evaluate progress on one or a few aspects alone. Appraisals must be made in terms of many types of development. Knowledge of progress in several skills will not give accurate information in regard to abilities in other skills. Personality changes, attitudes, interests, and other effects of reading upon a child make the job of appraising pupil growth more complicated.

Evaluative procedures which emphasize achievement on a competitive basis are not valid. Tests which depend upon anxiety and fear, which stress grades and marks, which sponsor copying and cheating are invalid and unfair. Moreover, they are worthless as a means of estimating the amount and quality of learning. Nor do they offer any help in effective guidance and direction of future growth of a child.

The shifted emphasis from pupil achievement to pupil development requires a modern evaluative program to do several things. First, it must measure achievement in a comprehensive range of skills rather than a few; second, it must appraise attitudes, personality, and character traits; third, it must interpret behavior changes. These attempts to measure the influence of reading on personality development are of recent origin.

Self-evaluation by pupils is an important aspect in the appraisal of reading success in a modern program. Pupils learn to review each reading experience to analyze its success and failure in terms of criteria which they helped to determine. Valid self-evaluation is de-

veloped through a program of pupil-teacher planning and cooperative working. It enables children to help direct their own future growth.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

Appraisal of children's growth in reading is done continuously and at fixed intervals. Successful teachers devote time to the study of each child. They use a variety of means to evaluate progress. Records are kept up to date and are available for study at all times. A brief discussion of some more evaluative procedures follows.

TEACHER OBSERVATION. A successful teacher observes carefully the reactions of each child to each new reading experience. She studies and observes his progress in developing effective reading habits and skills. She notes any difficulties that a child may have in attaining the objectives of a lesson and plans future lessons in consonance with revealed needs of pupils. Teachers' manuals will help her to know what to observe and what type of procedures to use to overcome these difficulties. In a preprimer lesson, for example, a first-grade manual suggests the following:

Observations to be made:

Analyze each child's progress and provide means for helping him to overcome any obstacles that are causing him difficulty. Watch especially for these items: (1) tendency to reverse words, such as *saw* and *was*, (2) inability to read fluently because of insufficient experience, (3) inability to read and to recognize any word in this section, and (4) inability to enjoy reading.

Recommended means for correcting pupil difficulties:

1. Children's ability to read words without reversals may be increased through practice on the recognition of beginning sounds in words. Both auditory and visual exercises should be used.

2. Children's ability to understand the stories in this section may be increased by giving them new and interesting experiences with pets. If possible, keep in the classroom for several days a dog and a cat that are friendly to each other.

3. Children's ability to recognize words may be increased through the use of an activity such as "Little Red Riding Hood." Choose one child as Little Red Riding Hood and have her carry all the word cards in her basket. When she knocks at a door, the wolf, in his very best wolf voice, should say, "What have you for me today, little granddaughter?" Red Riding Hood should take the cards from her basket one at a time, and hand them to the wolf to read aloud. If he is able to read all the cards, he should then be permitted to play the part of Little Red Riding Hood. The game should be continued until each child has had an opportunity to read the cards.

4. Children's enjoyment of stories may be increased by giving them opportunities to listen to humorous stories and poems.[1]

Similar suggestions for teacher observations and recommended means for overcoming difficulties are found in manuals of many basic reading programs.

An alert teacher will not allow instructional needs of pupils to accumulate until they become serious reading problems but will note and care for these difficulties each day.

Pupil's reading habits and tastes will be observed also. A record will be kept of the kinds of books he reads, amount of time he spends in reading, his attitude toward books, and the extent to which he relies on books for information. This information is necessary to guide a child's growth in reading.

Ascertaining the influence of reading on the personality development of a child is essential in any appraisal program. Although personality tests may be used, at the present time they measure only certain phases of adjustment. To get a complete picture of the influence of a reading program on a child's behavior, standardized test results must be supplemented by teacher observation. Records of a child's social and emotional development should be kept. Observations of pupil behavior in the classroom, in the lunchroom, and on the playground should be made. The factors to be observed

[1] G. A. Yoakam, Kathleen Hester, and Louise Abney, *A Teachers' Manual for First Grade Reading*, Laidlaw Readers, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, River Forest, Ill., 1955, pp. 115, 166.

in determining social and emotional maturity of children were listed in Part Two.

Sociograms give good indications of personality development. Having each child name the three people he likes best in his class and why and letting the children make "three wishes" are very helpful in understanding pupils' problems. From day to day a teacher should seek evidence of improvement in personality and emotional adjustments. Reading experiences reinforced by other activities in the area of social and emotional adjustments should be provided and further appraisals made.

CHECK LISTS.   These offer an excellent means of gathering data on the reading attainment of pupils. If a teacher keeps on top of her desk a comprehensive check sheet of factors affecting children's growth in reading, such as suggested in Part Two, and a *reading record card* such as the one suggested below, it becomes relatively easy to check any observations made during class work. In a short time a teacher has a composite picture of the strengths and weaknesses of the reading ability of each child.

This reading-record form lists the reading skills which have been discussed in Parts Four and Five. When used correctly, it presents a complete profile of a pupil's attainment in reading. It shows clearly the needs of a pupil which can profit from specific help as well as well as his strengths. Entries should be made throughout a year to show the progress of a child. Any changes in behavior should be noted. The card may be kept as part of a permanent file of information about a child.

PUPIL FILE FOLDERS.   A pupil file folder provides one of the most satisfying records of pupil growth for pupil, teacher, and parent. A folder for each child is filed alphabetically in a cardboard box or file. Each day one paper is collected from each child and filed. All papers should be dated. It may be an arithmetic paper today, a reading paper tomorrow, a creative story another day. A pupil may be chosen each week to do the filing. Reference to the file makes the growth of a child evident to the child himself as well as to a

THE READING RECORD CARD

Name   Sex

Date of birth   day   month   year   Date checked

Parent's name   Date rechecked

Status of home   Number in family

Characteristic	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Remarks
Physical				
Mental				
Emotional				
Abilities				

1. To increase vocabulary by learning meanings and pronunciations of new words
  a. To recognize symbols through
    1. Configuration
    2. Picture context clues
    3. Verbal context clues
    4. Phonic and structural analysis
  b. To interpret concepts adequately and accurately by
    1. Relating spoken words to visual symbols
    2. Relating visual symbols to one's experience				

A READING RECORD CARD (*Continued*)

Characteristic	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Remarks
3. Understanding various meanings a word may have				
4. Appreciating fine shadings of meaning context may give to a word				
2. To understand what is read				
a. To relate an idea read to previous experience				
b. To get the main idea of a sentence, paragraph, or story				
c. To select important details				
d. To read between lines, draw inferences correctly, and anticipate meaning				
e. To follow printed directions				
f. To gain visual images from the material read				
g. To recognize various types of material and understand the purpose for which material is read				
h. To read for sequential order				
i. To adjust speed of reading to purpose for which material is read				
3. To organize and remember what is read				
a. To sense sequence or				

A READING RECORD CARD (*Continued*)

Characteristic	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Remarks
orderly happening of events within the story or article				
b. To classify or group ideas				
c. To identify a main idea of a selection				
d. To locate details to support a main idea				
e. To relate main ideas and details in acceptable outline form				
f. To take notes				
g. To summarize materials				
h. To use organization keys				
4. To locate information effectively				
a. To skim rapidly to locate information pertinent to a problem				
b. To know the function and use of different parts of a book				
c. To make and use a bibliography				
d. To use a dictionary effectively				
e. To use encyclopedias				
f. To use a library effectively				
g. To use special references, as a telephone directory				
h. To use maps and other graphic materials				

A READING RECORD CARD (*Continued*)

Characteristic	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Remarks

5. To read aloud in a pleasant voice with expression
  a. To pronounce sounds of letters correctly
  b. To phrase properly
  c. To answer questions
  d. To prove a point
  e. To express a mood
  f. To read chorally
  g. To share with an audience				

6. To evaluate critically what is read
  a. To determine relevancy of material to a given topic
  b. To check validity of a statement
  c. To detect the difference between a statement of fact and a statement of opinion
  d. To understand the importance of a copyright date
  e. To understand that a printed statement is not always a true statement
  f. To check the competence of an author
  g. To use one's own experience in appraising what is read				

7. To read creatively				

A READING RECORD CARD (*Continued*)

Characteristic	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Remarks
a. To understand power of words				
b. To understand author's thoughts and feelings				
c. To understand cause and effect				
d. To interpret by expanding author's thoughts				
e. To interpret feelings by identifying with characters				
f. To evaluate effectively what is read				
g. To fuse new ideas with previous learnings				
h. To appreciate reading as a means of understanding life, finding and developing new interests, enjoying leisure				
i. To appreciate inspirational power and emotional appeal of reading				

teacher and parent. It is a strong motivating factor for a child and at the same time provides a tangible record of his development which enables teacher, parent, and pupil to understand his growth pattern.

ANECDOTAL RECORDS. Many teachers find it advisable to keep a series of informal notes about pupil behavior, especially in reading situations. These notes often throw light on a pupil's reading-growth pattern. They are valuable in determining the nature of improvement and individual needs.

SELF-APPRAISAL RECORDS. A child's opinion of his own reading growth and needs is an important factor in his reading and personal development. Growth occurs through seeing and correcting one's own errors and through watching one's improvement in the reading process. A successful teacher plans a pupil-teacher evaluation period as an integral part of a reading lesson. Illustrations of this type of evaluation were given in Part Seven.

Records of achievement in reading skills kept by pupils themselves are strong motivating factors. These records should be individual, not competitive. Individual charts listing reading skills may be constructed by children. At the close of each reading lesson each child should be encouraged to record his successes and failures in the various skills and abilities.

INTEREST INVENTORIES. These may be used periodically to appraise children's development in significant areas of growth. Since experience is a determining factor in interest, it is necessary to investigate the kinds and extent of experience a child has had. From this evidence a teacher may discover areas in which there is a need for enrichment. She will discover each pupil's reading habits and preferences and be able to guide him in his development. Excellent interest inventories are available from many sources in current educational literature.

In addition to the inventories, certain observations of children's interests may be made by an alert teacher. She may note whether there is continual growth in the amount of reading a child does, as

well as increase in the variety of types of material and purposes for which he reads.

STANDARDIZED TESTS.   To supplement the information obtained by the informal means that have been suggested, standardized tests can be used. A teacher should not attach too much significance to the results of them. A reading-grade score obtained on such tests indicates a frustration level rather than an instructional level of reading. This score is from six months to several years in advance of a child's classroom reading level because it indicates a level at which he has difficulty rather than a level at which he reads fluently. In a thorough reading appraisal, a standardized test plays a part if results are interpreted intelligently.

There are several types of standardized tests used for appraisal of reading progress. The survey type gives an over-all picture of the achievement of a group; a general achievement test usually measures pupil's progress in one or two areas, such as vocabulary and comprehension; semidiagnostic standardized tests measure achievement in several skills, such as vocabulary, central thought, organization, and prediction of outcomes; diagnostic standardized tests identify specific types of reading difficulties; and capacity tests indicate the level of hearing comprehension. There are many good standardized tests. Examples of each type may be found in *The Mental Measurement Yearbook*.[2]

PUPIL PROGRESS REPORTS.   Reports to parents are evaluative instruments that may serve a valuable purpose if used wisely. They should never be considered a disciplinary measure. The trend is toward fewer and less formal reports to parents that give real information concerning a child's growth. They are becoming more and more meaningful. Marks such as "E, S, U" and "A, B, C, D, E" are rapidly disappearing from report cards because their artificial standards are meaningless. What does a "U" mean? It may mean that a child refused to study, that he was unsatisfactory on the basis of grade

[2] O. K. Buros (ed.), *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, The Gryphon Press, Highland Park, N.J., 1959.

standards or teacher's ideals, that he was ill, that he was not able to do the work of the grade, that he could not hear, that he had trouble with vision, that he was shiftless and irresponsible. Many a child's life is made miserable and seeds of adult maladjustment are sown through unsound evaluative procedures. Many a child with high ability learns to be lazy because he meets grade standards and is accorded an "E" or "S" when he has the capabilities to work to a much higher level. He never develops them because parents and teachers are satisfied that "he is getting along well in the grade." The old-type report card assumes that all children are alike and are striving for the same goals. It fails to recognize differences in aptitudes and abilities.

A newer type of progress report considers each child as an individual and describes his work in terms of his own aptitudes and abilities. It describes his personality and character development, his work and health habits, his attitudes toward parents, teachers, and classmates, his attainment in subject areas. It informs parents of a child's growth and development and provides information to assist the home in guiding a child in his future growth.

Construction of a progress report requires pupil and teacher to work together in appraising a child's development. Goals are set in a cooperative planning period. Children help to evaluate their own progress. In some schools intermediate-grade children write a personal letter to their parents. Each child tells how well he is doing in certain areas and the ways in which he wishes to make improvements. Social and personal growth objectives and a list of attainments in each subject-matter area are included. The teacher includes her comments on each child's progress. A carbon copy is kept on file, and thus a continuous growth record of each child is maintained.

An informal report promotes the idea that growth and development are the important factors in school life and that extrinsic symbols are valueless. A child's father and mother work to attain certain objectives in life. They do not work for an artificial "A"

from an employer. There are intrinsic satisfactions in a job well done. An occasional note recording real accomplishments provides a far greater and better stimulus to further progress than any number of "marks." An analysis of a child's strengths and weaknesses develops an enlightened pupil and parent interest in increasing individual growth and development in all phases. This type of report is a positive appraisal instrument.

CHAPTER 26 ♦ EVALUATING A WHOLE READING PROGRAM

INFORMATION OBTAINED by a teacher through the use of various evaluative procedures may be used in two ways. First, it is used to help a teacher guide an individual child in his growth. The results stated in terms of a child's reading and related behavior help a teacher to know what changes to make in future instruction. Inferences are drawn regarding attained and unattained objectives. Revisions are made. The process of evaluation and revision is repeated as many times as it is necessary to help a child attain a desired degree of growth in reading.

A second use of information is to enable a teacher and faculty to view the strengths and weaknesses of a reading program as a whole. When data are collected and interpreted, real evidence of the extent to which a school program is reaching the desired goals in reading growth is made available. Then the next step in planning may be undertaken effectively by the staff. Necessary changes in pupil growth are not brought about by haphazard instruction but require definite planning if goals are to be obtained. Knowledge of what changes have been made in the pupils and what remains to be done in the future is essential. Only by appraisal and evaluation is it possible to know the effectiveness of the methods and materials that are being used.

Characteristics of an Effective Reading Program

The goal of every reading program is to develop effective readers—children who enjoy reading, use reading skills and abilities efficiently at their levels, and make reading a natural part of their lives. An effective reader, according to Constance McCullough, "is not a

finished product, nor does he consider himself as such. He is a constant learner whose characteristics rather than level of achievement mark him as an effective reader."[1]

What kind of a program will develop a reader who is constantly learning? Teachers spend much time on this question trying to decide what type of program to use and ways to improve their instructional procedures.

Although there is no one best way to teach reading to all children, there are certain conditions which are favorable for learning and which characterize successful reading programs. Teachers who examine their own programs or who observe reading programs in action may find it helpful to guide their observations by consideration of four major areas: (1) physical conditions of a classroom, (2) classroom climate, (3) instructional procedures, (4) children's reactions. A few important points which may be noted in each area are listed here.

PHYSICAL CONDITIONS OF A SUCCESSFUL CLASSROOM

1. A successful classroom is light, airy, cheerful, and attractive. Children's seats are movable and adjusted for physical comfort.
2. There is a well-lighted reading corner equipped with a table, an easy chair or two, and some plants. Open book shelves attractively arranged are along the wall within easy reach of pupils.
3. A reading-game corner is equipped with reading games, puzzles, and practice exercises, many of which are made by pupils as an outgrowth of classroom reading activities.
4. Conversation pieces to stimulate discussion and reading are found on a display table for objects brought in by pupils and/or teacher.
5. There are attractive and purposeful bulletin boards.
6. Library facilities are the best that can be had.
7. A filmstrip projector and filmstrips, recordings, and other sensory aids are accessible to children, if at all possible.

[1] Constance McCullough, "Characteristics of Effective Readers," in Helen M. Robinson (ed. and comp.), *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping,* Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago Press, December, 1959, p. 3.

FAVORABLE CLASSROOM CLIMATE

1. There is teacher leadership with a high degree of pupil participation and a pleasant pupil-teacher relationship.
2. Pupils are actively interested.
3. There is encouragement to explore, question, and discuss problems. Reading becomes a part of classroom life.
4. Children are becoming increasingly self-reliant. They are willing and able to help themselves and help others when occasion arises.

FAVORABLE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. A teacher has knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of various instructional programs in reading.
2. Reading is taught as a complex process involving the entire personalities of children, with consideration of mental, physical, social and emotional growth of pupils.
3. Systematic instruction in reading is provided during scheduled periods. This does not preclude individualizing instruction, but means flexibility in the use of materials with provision for a diversity in ranges of reading levels, and recognition that some learnings are best done in group situations.
4. Provision is made for continuous growth in habits, skills, and abilities which will permit efficient reading.
5. At all times reading is taught with meaning and understanding and is related to the children's experiences and to other areas of curriculum. There is constant application of reading skills learned to content areas.
6. A reading program provides for extensive, free, and independent reading. It promotes interests and tastes that cause children to become habitual readers of better types of reading materials.
7. There is continuous evaluation of pupil progress.

FAVORABLE CHILDREN'S REACTIONS

1. Children enjoy reading and make it a part of their home and school lives. They use ideas gained in reading as they would first-hand experiences.

2. They develop reading skills to levels commensurate to their ability and maturity, and use these skills in study situations.

3. Pupils are aware of their status in various skills. They know their strengths and weaknesses, and are willing and eager to overcome weak spots and develop more advanced skills.

4. They give more than surface answers to questions. They can and do talk about the problems raised in stories, the solutions, and the answers which an author gives. They discuss issues that require judgment, the motives of story characters and authors, and human relationships. In such discussions they respect differences of opinion among members of a group. They react to ideas logically, emotionally, and creatively.

5. Pupils are willing to explore all literary areas. They do not reject poetry or any other literary form.

6. Children express their reactions in various ways: through discussion; through creative writing of stories, poems and songs; through pictures and dances.

A Summary Statement

This part has discussed evaluation of a reading program both from the point of view of individual pupil growth and development and from the point of view of a whole reading program. The meaning of appraisal and evaluation and more recent trends in evaluation have been considered. The importance of shifting the emphasis from pupil achievement to pupil development in appraising progress has been stressed. Some of the more common evaluative procedures used in appraising children's growth have been presented. These include teacher observation, check lists, pupil file folders, anecdotal records, self-appraisal records, interest inventories, standardized tests, and pupil progress reports. The section closed with a list of criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of a reading program.

Index

INDEX OF NAMES

INDEX OF SUBJECTS